

THE CHARITIES REVIEW

Volume X

MARCH, 1900

Number 1

Prof. Amos G.
Warner.

Prof. Amos G. Warner, the author of "American charities," died at Las Cruces, N. M., on January 18, of tuberculosis. Professor Warner has made an impression on the philanthropic and economic world, even on those who never met him personally, all out of proportion to the length of time he was engaged in active work. From a colleague in his university life, Dr. Edward A. Ross, professor of economics in Stanford university, we quote the following tribute, published in the *Stanford Sequoia*:

Professor Warner came to the university in the spring of 1893 fresh from his work as superintendent of charities of the District of Columbia. His record at Johns Hopkins university, his experience as secretary of the charity organization society of Baltimore, his success as professor in the university of Nebraska, and his contributions to his science, had awakened expectations and these were not disappointed. Although, save for a part of the fall of 1897, his teaching did not extend beyond November, 1894, he left a mark on the university which will remain. None of us has in so short a time made so deep an impress on his colleagues. Although even now classes of students come and go knowing little of him, his work here

will live, because other men have caught his spirit. Up and down the state, too, are many of our early graduates who were trained under him. And there is not one of them who is not wiser and more devoted for having known him. If in public affairs our alumni are everywhere making themselves felt for good, it is in great measure due to him.

Dr. Warner had the pioneering mind. His analysis of the causes of poverty is a classic on the subject. The course on industrial corporations offered in the university of Nebraska and repeated here to large classes was the first of its kind in the United States. His "American charities" is almost the first and by all odds the best book in the field. His teaching, too, was original. He loved to cut loose from texts and get at things. He had his students visit jails, almshouses, and asylums, police courts and city halls, that they might see and judge for themselves. In these first-hand investigations and reports his students developed a power they will never lose. All who came near Dr. Warner felt the bracing ozone of his great common sense. Life on the farm had given him an instinct for reality no doctrinaire could destroy. He was of the new victorious younger school of economists, and in his hands economics never became lifeless or dismal. In a day when isms were more rife than they are now he kept his head clear and sent folly

flying with a homely illustration or a pungent epigram.

To few men is it given to be good as well as witty and wise, but Dr. Warner was as good as he was wise. Blind Dr. Glenn, of Baltimore, dining with him, felt he was good, and got him to take their charity work.



THE LATE PROF. AMOS G. WARNER.

(From a photo taken in 1893).

Washington found him single-hearted for the welfare of the dependent classes under his care. In those four never-to-be-forgotten lay sermons he gave at his farewell visit, he spoke perhaps the noblest words that have been heard here. The drift of his teaching his students probably understand better now than they did at the time. He approached everything with the cool, shrewd regard of the investigator to whom municipal corruption and corporation rascality are merely phenomena to

be looked into. He might have taken as his motto of Spinoza: "Neither to laugh nor to weep, neither to praise nor to blame, but to understand." But an ideal was through it all, and he had moments of noble vehemence which showed how sacred he held the mission of the investigator. He once said to me; "Others may agitate and preach; I have concluded I can do the most good by investigating these things and just telling the whole truth."

Through years of fight with disease Dr. Warner showed himself to us always tranquil and courageous. He never complained or asked for sympathy. His letters never betrayed depression. If he could not report good news he said nothing of himself. But always they contained something quaint, fresh, humorous even. Thinking always of others and not of himself, he was in a perpetual wonder at the kindness of people. In a recent letter to me he said: "The more I travel around in odd corners of the world, the more I am surprised at the general kindness of people and impressed with the idea that this old world is a tolerably warm-hearted contrivance after all."

Professor Warner leaves a wife and two children, boy and girl, aged seven and nine years.

CITY AFFAIRS.

Notwithstanding the repeated and persistent attacks made on the sweatshop system of New York city, each year statements are made from reliable sources, showing that this system is still far from extinction. We have in hand the report of the visiting physician for an infirmary, giving typical cases:

New York Sweatshops.

East
Diseas
finishi
light;
seven

East
house.
died;
one li
with t

Fift
Three
flanne
wrapp
holes.
cents
ten ce

Eliz
ease, n
one li
Two f

Eliz
cases
rooms
\$12.

Eliz
monia
light.

Not
show
and i
childr

The
at wo
works
ished
surro

was
Brook
ging"
witho
that t
and
facto
not b
tion.
seven

East Twelfth street. Austrian. Disease, pulmonary tuberculosis; finishing coats; four rooms, two light; rent, \$14. Two families, seven persons, in apartment.

East Fourteenth street. Rear house. Italians. Disease, measles, died; finishing trousers; two rooms, one light; rent, \$6.50. One family with two lodgers.

Fifth street. Rear. Russians. Three cases of measles; outing-flannel shirtwaists and women's wrappers, neither including button-holes. Waists three and one half cents to four cents each; wrappers ten cents each.

Elizabeth street. Italians. Disease, measles; trousers; three rooms, one light, two on airshaft; rent, \$6. Two families.

Elizabeth street. Italians. Four cases of measles; trousers; three rooms, light. Two families; rent, \$12.

Elizabeth street. Disease, pneumonia; trousers; four rooms, two light. Three families; rent, \$13.

Not one of these families could show a factory inspector's license, and in each case men, women, and children were at work.

The factory inspectors are hard at work ferreting out these family workshops, where garments are finished contrary to law, and in filthy surroundings. This month one visit was made on an Italian colony in Brooklyn for the purpose of "tagging" goods which had been made without license. This tag states that the goods are tenement made, and that the tag affixed by the factory inspection department may not be removed, subject to prosecution. In one house six adults and seven children were found living and

working in two rooms. In another house was a child ill, with diphtheria, it is stated, and on the child's crib lay a large pile of unfinished garments. In a third dwelling was a boy who appeared to be down with smallpox, while his mother went on finishing garments. The persons who are found guilty of these violations will be prosecuted, as also the contractors who employ them, and the clothing-houses which use the goods. Notwithstanding this, doubtless the work will go on just as soon as the inspectors' backs are turned. It is clear that the only effective procedure to stop the sweatshop evil is for the consumer to insist that the goods he purchases are made under healthful conditions. In this, co-operation with the consumers' league, which is now established in several states, is the most effective way of furthering reform. The efforts of the factory inspectors are useful, but alone they can never adequately cope with the evil.

Baltimore's
New Municipal
Boards.

The mayor of Baltimore has appointed Mr. Jeffrey R. Brackett the head of the new department of charities and corrections which after March 1 is to take the place of the trustees of the poor. Mr. Brackett was chairman of a special commission on care of city poor in 1897, on the recommendations of which the provisions of the new city charter were largely based in the sections relating to the care of the indigent sick and other public charges. He has also served as a trustee of the poor. While

these were important public services, Mr. Brackett was also chairman of the executive committee of the citizens' central relief committee in 1894, and is best known as a leader in the organization of private charity. He has been active in forming public sentiment throughout the country through THE CHARITIES REVIEW, through the national conference of charities and correction, through his lectures to the students of Johns Hopkins university, and, perhaps most important of all, through the personal intercourse and correspondence which he has carried on to the great advantage of the charities of many cities.

The new charter of Baltimore provides that the department of charities and corrections shall consist of the supervisors of city charities and the visitors to the city jail, with the mayor a member *ex-officio*. The department will effect a great change in the present system of taking care of the city's indigent sick and poor. Instead of annually appropriating money to the hospitals and other charitable institutions, the municipal board of estimates will appropriate it to the department of charities and corrections, which will have direct supervision over all persons placed by its discretion in hospitals or other institutions on behalf of the city. The institution will be paid so much for each person so cared for as long as he or she remains an inmate of the institution, in the discretion of the supervisors. This is considered one of the best features of the new charter.

Another municipal feature pro-

vided for in the new charter of Baltimore is a board of nine school commissioners, appointed by the mayor, serving without pay, and taking the place of the former board of twenty-two members, one from each of the old city wards, who were elected by the city council. All officers and employes of the department are to be appointed by the board, at salaries which it is empowered to fix. Plans for new schoolhouses must have its approval. Teachers must be nominated by a superintendent appointed by the board, and these nominations must be confirmed by the board. The board is to appoint annually a number of unpaid school visitors, one or more of whom will be assigned to every school. The school, which is to be in the immediate neighborhood of the visitor's home, is to be visited once a quarter, or oftener. The superintendent and his assistants are required to visit the schools at frequent intervals, and prepare written reports on the condition of each school. Appointments of teachers are to be made from a list graded according to the qualifications of candidates.

Nominations to the new board include some of the most prominent citizens of Baltimore, and the city is certain to secure from their disinterested services the very best possible results.

In all the new school buildings of New York, space has been left for installing a system of shower baths. The baths will now be tried in two or three of the schools on the east

Baths in New
York Schools.

side,
most n
in the
school
Childre
their o

Apropo
School B

towel
thousa
them
the sho
like ge
not?
which
the wa
insist
on the
rose in
a strik
tion w
not m
making
throug
difficu
when
clothe
object
in a co
people
throug
for cl
desire
what i
every
provid
suffici
to sh
by all
fellow
They
we all
them
it to t
of co
school
be wi
be gr

side, where bathing facilities are most needed. The cost of putting in the first twenty-six baths at school No. 1 will be about \$2,000. Children will be required to furnish their own towels and soap.

**Apropos of
School Baths.**

An American firm (the Palmer Manufacturing Co.) provides a basin and towel for each separate one of their thousands of workmen, and expects them to use them before leaving the shop, and to go home looking like gentlemen—and why should they not? But a firm of American origin, which has a factory on this side of the water, introduced and tried to insist on the same thing. Hereupon the spirit of the free born Briton rose in arms, and there was almost a strike, until the obnoxious regulation was removed. The Briton did not mind going home dirty, and making his good wife a slattern through sheer hopelessness at the difficulty of keeping the house clean when her husband came home with clothes and person dirty. If he did object to going through the streets in a condition that makes fastidious people draw away from him, not through pride but through a love for cleanliness, if he felt any real desire to be clean, he would get what he wants; for in this country every one can get what he wants provided only that he can get a sufficient number of his neighbors to share in the desire. Wherefore by all means let us try to make our fellow-citizens desire to be clean. They will profit by it, and so shall we all. And the best way to make them cultivate this virtue is to teach it to them in their youth by means of compulsory cleanliness in their school days. The children would be willing, and in after-days might be grateful. And the increase of

cleanliness on the part of the children of the humbler classes would not be without benefit to the community at large.—*The Hospital.*

**A Department
Store
School.**

One of the large department stores of New York city, which employs some 300 cash boys, has set apart a portion of the basement of the store for a schoolroom. Here the boys in sections attend school twice a week, from eight to ten in the morning, under a teacher engaged by the store. The school was started as an experiment last fall, and has proved so successful that it has now become a permanent feature. It has been found to increase the efficiency and usefulness of the boys in their store work. The majority need no urging to take up faithfully this opportunity for an education. Arithmetic, penmanship, and the correct use of English are the subjects emphasized. The records of work in the school are given much weight in the matter of promotion in the store.

**A Co-operative
Hospital.**

Boston has an emergency hospital, which hopes to be supported entirely by the wage-earners of the city. Donations are not solicited. Cards entitling the holder to free treatment for a year are sold to workmen for \$1. Other sources of revenue are the sale of drugs and the payments of liability companies for medical care in case of accident occurring on insured premises. It is estimated that only one in twenty-five persons insured will require ward treatment.

The workmen who compose the association have full control over the hospital through a board of trustees.

CHARITY ORGANIZATION.

Buffalo Outdoor Relief.

The crusade of the charity organization society and churches in regard to city outdoor relief has had decided results. The estimates of the overseer of the poor for outdoor relief as submitted this year are \$63,750. Last year his estimate was double that amount, or \$122,950, which was cut down to \$91,950 by the common council. Even as reduced the amount estimated as necessary for next year is more than is now spent for this purpose in any other city of the country, except Chicago, although local conditions will be unusually favorable in Buffalo next year. The present low estimate is no doubt in consequence of the agitation of last year, and of the joint letter addressed to the overseer of the poor last month by the charity organization society, the salvation army, and the association of Buffalo settlement workers, asking him to fix his estimate for next year at \$51,750. For office expenses, salaries, and indoor relief, the overseer's estimate is \$75,890, which is \$5,600 less than his estimate of last year.

Brooklyn Charity Club.

A club similar to the Monday evening club of Boston has been inaugurated in Brooklyn. Its object is to bring together the workers in the charitable and philanthropic institutions and societies of the borough,

for the sake of promoting mutual acquaintance and a better understanding of the different lines of work.

The Charity Trust Again.

At a recent meeting of the council of the charity organization society of Grand Rapids, a plan was discussed for collecting all moneys intended for the various charitable institutions of the city, outside of religious organizations, by the charity organization society, instead of each institution raising its own funds. This would not bind other societies in any way to the charity organization society, each continuing its separate organization and special methods as formerly. Action will be taken on the proposition by the societies interested at an early date.

Columbus.

The associated charities of Columbus has appointed Rev. W. S. Eagleson, a former presbyterian minister of the city, superintendent, and will commence work at once. Something over \$2,000 has been subscribed to carry on the work, and there is every assurance of success.

Chicago Charities Concentrate.

A number of the more prominent charitable societies of Chicago have been planning to concentrate their work under one roof, as is already done in New York city. The only purpose of this is to secure greater convenience in carrying on the relief work of the city. The concentration will not affect the individual organization of the societies concerned.

Employment Exchange

several the ages five, in take reg charity learning to have when t a salary Address society. street, I

New County Asylum

care of ported ing will which i penden esting ture is through no infl kind an doors to separ asylum are of slate co structu closed

The berland a count house cost ab among

Dur sevent

Employment Exchange.

The Baltimore charity organization society would like to correspond with several educated women between the ages of twenty-five and thirty-five, in good health, who wish to take regular training for professional charity work. Small salary while learning. The society would expect to have the services of such a worker, when trained, for several years at a salary of from \$40 to \$60 a month. Address, the charity organization society, room 12, 301 North Charles street, Baltimore, Md.

THE INSANE.

New County Asylums.

Lancaster county, Pa., has just built, at a cost of \$72,000, an asylum for the care of the county insane, now supported at state asylums. The building will accommodate 150 patients, which is double the number now dependent on the county. It is interesting to note that the new structure is fireproof. All the partitions throughout are of solid brick, and no inflammable partitions of any kind are used in the building. Fire doors are provided on all floors to separate the three sections of the asylum, and all the main stairways are of iron. The roof is steel, with slate covering, and at each end of the structure are large fire escapes, enclosed with heavy iron screens.

The board of freeholders of Cumberland county, N. J., has erected a county insane hospital on the alms-house farm property. The building cost about \$75,000, and is considered among the best in the state.

During the month of January seventy-eight patients were dis-

charged from the state hospital at Norristown, Pa., as cured. This large number of discharges is the result of an investigation by a committee of the trustees, following upon general complaint of the overcrowded condition of the state hospitals, and the assertion that not so many patients were discharged as should be. Suspicion is thrown, as the result of this wholesale release of persons not properly adjudged insane, either upon the relatives of these inmates, in causing them to be confined, or upon the physicians of the hospital, in allowing them to remain.

American Medico-Psychological Association.

The meeting of the American medico-psychological association, in Richmond, Virginia, will be held May 8 to 11, not May 1 to 4, as heretofore announced. The change in date is made to enable members to attend the congress of American physicians and surgeons in Washington, May 1 to 4.

Insanity Not a Disgrace.

From a paper by Dr. C. B. Burr, on the care of recent cases of insanity, we quote a paragraph which is of interest to the public at large as well as to specialists:

Permit me to urge the abandonment in conversation, or discussion in medical papers on insanity, of all terms referring to out-of-date theories, as to its origin; also expressions which savor of flippancy or contumely. Early hospitalization of curable cases is frequently hindered and recovery retarded or perhaps prevented by fancied disgrace or stigma attaching to the admission

of mental infirmity. If physicians refused to permit thoughtless or cruel appellations to be used in their presence and invariably presented the medical point of view to the friends of patients, a generation or two would see the practical overturning of old and absurd notions respecting the nature, causation, and consequences of insanity.

THE EPILEPTIC.

New Jersey.

The new epileptic colonies of New Jersey and Texas are not progressing rapidly, owing to scarcity of funds with which to carry out the original plans. The New Jersey village was established by act of the legislature in 1898, and a large farm was purchased at that time. Last year additional appropriation was made, but owing to an informality was not available. Since then little has been done. The board this year will doubtless secure the use of the old appropriation and also one for the current year. There are about 260 epileptics already in the public institutions of the state and many more in private homes.

Texas.

The Texas colony is at a standstill because the appropriation provided, \$50,000, is too small to meet the conditions under which it was made; i. e., that it should provide for accommodations for 500 patients. The actual expense of such provision will be nearer \$200,000, and it is hoped this amount will be appropriated. A site for the buildings has been donated by the citizens of Abilene.

CHILDREN.

Whereabouts of Placed-Out Children.

A superintendent of an orphan asylum in Indiana contributes the following interesting chapter from his experience:

I have recently placed two sweet little girls, one of them five and the other three years old, in two excellent families living in the same neighborhood, so that they can grow up knowing each other. The mother, a respectable enough, but poor and rather sickly, woman, is constantly beseeching me to inform her where the children are located. I have repeatedly told her that they had unusually good homes, and were well, and have sent her copies of the letters from the people who have them, with the address left off, expressing their great love for the children and informing me how they were developing and what they were doing and intended to do for them. But this does not satisfy the mother. She wants their address. It is very painful to refuse her request, for, without doubt, she deeply loves them, though it is not probable that she can ever provide for them. But I am quite sure that if she secures their address she will soon go to see them, perhaps settle in that neighborhood, and the result will be that the children will become discontented and unsettled, or the people will be so annoyed that they will return them to the institution again. This is a common experience with all who are engaged in placing out children. Some years ago I placed out a girl fourteen years old with people who adopted and educated her, sending her first through the high school and afterwards through a college, fitting her to become a teacher. Her younger brother I placed with a banker, who sent him regularly to school. They

had been
years,
me and
children
not to
relation
tunities
He wen
all that
leave l
But sh
sense o
was.
brother
finding
out and
to go l
tie his
after d
upper
doors,
and ta
was su
was tra
the las
girl gr
death
herited
sand d
some
prospe
her ow
work
The
exper
ents i
leave
found
daugh
from a
she w
Anoth
addre
been
some
night
My
it is
partic
child
gener

had been placed about one or two years, when their father called on me and begged so hard to see his children, that, on his solemn promise not to do anything to disturb their relations, I yielded to his importunities, and gave him their address. He went first to see the girl and did all that he could to persuade her to leave her home, and go with him. But she was old enough and had sense enough to remain where she was. He then went to her young brother, living in another town, and, finding him in school, called him out and made arrangements with him to go back to his guardian's house, tie his clothes up in a bundle, and, after dark, to throw them out of an upper window, and then come out doors, when he would meet the boy and take him away. This program was successfully carried out, the boy was traced to Detroit, and that was the last we ever heard of him. The girl graduated from college. On the death of her foster parents she inherited their property (several thousand dollars), taught successfully for some time, and is now married to a prosperous physician, has a home of her own, and is a prominent church worker and member of society.

The above is not an uncommon experience of the treachery of parents in inducing their children to leave good homes. One mother found out where her thirteen-year-old daughter was staying and took her from a good farm-house to a brothel she was keeping in a large city. Another bribed a lawyer to get the address of her two children who had been placed near each other for some years, and ran them off one night to Chicago.

My conclusion is that, as a rule, it is not safe to inform parents, particularly mothers, where their children are placed. The guardians generally object to this, and not

many children could be placed in good families if it was understood that the parents were to know where they were living. And yet there should be no ironclad rule. Circumstances should determine, in all cases of this character, whether or not the parents can be safely informed of the location of their children. While all children are surrendered to us by their nearest relatives, in writing, before a magistrate, with the distinct understanding that we shall have the authority to indenture or adopt them, and that the relatives are not to have any further intercourse with them without our consent, I frequently inform them where their children are placed, after they have become well settled, provided I have good reason to believe that there will be no interference and the guardians themselves consent. Sometimes I am deceived even in such circumstances, but frequently no harm results. But it requires great discrimination.

New York
S. P. C. C

The twenty-fifth annual report of the New York society for the prevention of cruelty to children states that during 1899 5,637 children were "rescued, released, and placed in positions where they would be properly cared for, clothed, and educated." An examination of a table given on a later page shows that 3,403 of the children, or sixty per cent, were lost, strayed, or stolen children returned to parents or guardians. Homes were found or situations provided for fifteen children, 106 were committed to the custody of the society for the prevention of cruelty to children, and the remaining 2,113 were committed

to institutions. The report makes a strong appeal for the establishment of a children's court.

**Philadelphia
Truants.**

The board of education in Philadelphia has had under consideration the wisdom of committing truants either to the care of the children's aid society, to be placed in country homes, or to the Carter junior republic at Paddington, Northampton county, Pa., which is somewhat similar to the George junior republic at Freeville, N. Y.

**Baltimore
C. A. S.**

The thirty-ninth annual report of the Henry Watson children's aid society of Baltimore shows that the number of children in country homes under its care, at the beginning of the year, was 242. During the year forty-one children were received from magistrates and fifty-one from parents or guardians. The number of children in country homes at the close of the year was 257. The society has established fourteen home libraries, somewhat on the plan of those which have been so successfully managed by the Boston children's aid society.

**Placing-out
Ideals.**

The thirty-fifth annual report of the children's home of Cincinnati has the following interesting statement as to the qualifications of an ideal visitor for placing out and visiting children:

He should have an intelligent love for, and understanding of, children; should be perfectly self-controlled, contagiously cheerful, exceptionally patient; courteous, enthusiastic, winsome, but allowing no undue famil-

ilarity; as resourceful as the newspaper interviewer; with the wisdom of a judge, the piety of a martyr, the adaptability of a commercial traveler, the endurance of a gold seeker, the acuteness and skill of a hunter, the shrewdness of a detective, and the prompt obedience and decision of a Dewey.

The following paragraph also is interesting:

How homes are found. In every way: by talking, writing, advertising, public addresses, personal effort, and taking parties of children to seek homes. Home-finding is the successful visitor's hobby; he never dismounts from it waking or dreaming; he is ever in the saddle. Every conversation is brought to the consideration of this subject. Every action has that in view. Helping an elderly lady with her baskets and bundles from one car to another enlisted her sympathy in the work. She gave the name and address of a lady who had buried her only daughter. The visitor wrote to her, went to see her, took her a black-eyed girl, who filled the vacant place, and later he placed seven other children in good homes in that community. One satisfactory child in a new home will do much to cause neighbors to go and do likewise.

STATE BOARDS AND COMMISSIONS.

Indiana.

The Indiana bulletin of charities and correction last published by the board of state charities contains much useful information with relation to the charitable and correctional institutions of the state, including a directory of the benevolent and correctional institutions of the state. The topics treated in the bulletin are: "township poor relief reports;"

"state
"nation
ports
and c
state i

Michi

gan s
was h
and i
been
The s
pende
agent
count
dren;
eased
and p
charg
ance v
confes
tion,
be con
Hon.
the bo
gan
of th
Michi
report
and p
before
The l
a com
embo
tance
impre
at or
earne
esteem
regar

Minne

ber,

"state conference of charities;" "national prison progress;" "reports of boards of county charities and corrections," and "statistics of state institutions."

Michigan.

The eighteenth annual convention of the Michigan state conference of charities was held in Detroit, December 14 and 15, 1899, and is reported to have been a very successful gathering. The subjects considered were: "dependent children;" "the county agent's work;" "municipal and county charities;" "delinquent children;" "the defective and diseased," and "reformatories for adults and prisons." Each subject was in charge of a committee, in accordance with the usage of the national conference of charities and correction, the chairman of which might be considered a specialist in his line. Hon. O. M. Barnes, president of the board of control of the Michigan state prison and president of the joint prison boards of Michigan, was to have presented the report on reformatories for adults and prisoners, but died a few weeks before the date of the convention. The last work he did was to dictate a communication to the convention, embodying suggestions of importance regarding penal matters. An impressive memorial service was held at one of the sessions, at which earnest expression was given to the esteem with which Mr. Barnes was regarded.

Minnesota.

The bulletin of charities and correction for December, 1899, published by the state

board of corrections and charities, has been received. It contains items on the "national conference of charities and correction;" "humanity of deporting non-resident insane;" the "nineteenth Minnesota pauper enumeration," and other topics. Interesting reports are contained in this number of the visits of inspection made to county poorhouses. As in other states, the bathing facilities in these institutions seem to be very defective, and with relation to one of them there appears the following note: "There is a bathroom, but no facilities for receiving fresh or emptying dirty water. In fact, there is no bathtub. The overseer's sister, who seems much interested in the inmates, and keeps the house in very clean condition, says that the inmates thoroughly bathe at least once in every three months." Of course spray baths should be used in all institutions of this sort and not bathtubs. The former are much more sanitary and do away entirely with the temptation to bathe several inmates in the same water in order to save time.

Nebraska.

The third annual meeting of the Nebraska conference of charities and correction was held on February 7 and 8, at the state university at Lincoln, with a larger attendance than at any previous meeting, and with more interest and enthusiasm in the discussions. The address of welcome was given by Governor W. A. Poynter. He was followed by Chancellor Bessy of the university, who presided also at the meetings of the conference. Professor Bessy in his address made special mention of

Prof. Amos G. Warner, who studied in Nebraska university, afterwards went to Baltimore to pursue special studies, and then came back to the university as a lecturer on political economy and sociology. He gave an outline of Mr. Warner's work at Washington and at the Leland Stanford university, and mentioned splendid traits of his character which had come to his personal attention. Prof. J. E. Harris, superintendent of the institute for the blind, gave an address on the subject of how the blind can be made self-supporting. In the earnest discussion which followed this paper, Mr. H. H. Hart, secretary of the national conference, and Superintendent Dawes, of the institution for the deaf, took part. Rev. E. V. Forell, chaplain of the industrial school for boys, brought out the most discussion of perhaps any speaker. He took the position that the criminal boy is very closely connected with the boy in the institute for the feeble-minded, and that it is impossible to draw the lines distinctly between these classes. He was followed by Rev. E. P. Ludon, who spoke on the subject, "family life versus institutional life." In the evening Mrs. M. E. Sly, of the child's saving institute, Omaha, read a paper on the subject, "the disinherited," and was followed by Mr. Hart, who delivered an address on "the new charities." The next forenoon was devoted to the subjects of "relief work" and "the duty of the state in reformatory work." Dr. Chas. E. Elwood, secretary of the charity organisation society of Lincoln, opened the discussion of the first topic, and Mrs. Edwards, superintendent of the state industrial school at Milford, the discussion on the second subject. It is expected that the next meeting of the conference will be held in Omaha. Mr. Guy C. Barton, of Omaha, was elected president, Dr.

C. E. Elwood, vice-president, Mr. A. W. Clark, of Omaha, secretary, and Rev. E. V. Forell, treasurer.

Massachusetts Legislation.

Among the measures before the Massachusetts legislature this year are several of interest to our readers. One proposes the abolishment of the boards of trustees for children, and for paupers, of the Boston institutions. Another is to enable the completion of the system of playgrounds in Boston. Important bills have been introduced extending the probation system now in use; also a bill to create a new reformatory, which shall stand between the Lyman school for boys and the Concord reformatory. It is once more proposed to abolish the old house of correction at South Boston. Measures for extending the power of the state board of charity, enabling it to visit and inspect city and town almshouses, and for transferring the care of all the insane to the state, have already been mentioned in the REVIEW.

New York.

The state board of charities met on January 30 and 31 last, and considered and adopted its thirty-third annual report to the legislature, which was transmitted to that body on February 19. The text of the report covers 190 pages and contains a careful *résumé* of the work of the board during 1899. The board also adopted the report of its special committee on state hospitals for consumptives, consisting of Commissioners Putnam, Stoddard,

and S. proved institu sanato system sumpt powers be inc mild fo ent co

The learn t county a mod old, tu the po housed howev to inv torney impro system augur een m much it is s board impro houses

The Hon. Theoc to the sion t case o the p dren, to the down divide Judge vailing ciety

and Smith. The committee approved the establishment of these institutions, in connection with local sanatoria, as a part of a general system for the eradication of consumption, and suggested that the powers of the local boards of health be increased so as to give them a mild form of supervision of dependent consumptives.

The board is much gratified to learn that the authorities of Fulton county have at last decided to erect a modern almshouse in place of the old, tumble-down structures in which the poor of that county have been housed so long. It is to be regretted, however, that the board was obliged to invoke the assistance of the attorney-general before this necessary improvement could be secured. The system of almshouse inspection inaugurated by the board about eighteen months ago has already borne much fruit of a practical nature, and it is said that never before in the board's history have so many needed improvements been made to almshouses in the state.

The board, through its counsel, Hon. Benjamin F. Tracy and Hon. Theodore E. Hancock, has applied to the court of appeals for permission to make a reargument in the case of the New York society for the prevention of cruelty to children, which was decided adversely to the board in an opinion handed down on January 9, the court being divided by a vote of four to three. Judge O'Brien, who wrote the prevailing opinion, held that the society was not a "charitable institu-

tion" within the meaning of the constitution and the statutes, and therefore was not within the jurisdiction of the board. The decision also went further and declared that the board's jurisdiction was limited to institutions receiving public moneys, although there is nothing warranting this opinion to be found in either the constitution or the statutes which impose the board's duties, and it is for this reason mainly that the board has decided to ask for another hearing.

Paupers in Kansas.

The commissioner of labor of Kansas has been collecting statistics concerning the pauper population of that state. The returns are such as would seem to indicate that Kansas has fewer paupers in proportion to its population than almost any other state. Sixteen of the thirty-one counties so far reported have no poor farms. In some of the counties which have reported, it is stated that there are fewer than five paupers to the county. Some of the larger counties, however, have not yet reported.

Poor Farm vs. Almshouse.

The board of county supervisors of Pottawatomie county, Ia., are considering the matter of securing a farm upon which the paupers of the county may be placed. Their care at present amounts to \$20,000 a year, and it is thought that with a good farm of 160 acres, and buildings accommodating from 150 to 200 persons, the institution could be made nearly self-supporting.

THE PRISONER.**Prison Twine
vs. Trusts.**

The officials of the Kansas penitentiary have decided to sell binding twine to the farmers direct instead of through dealers. It is feared that the binding twine trust might through those dealers get control of the output of the penitentiary plant, and force the farmers to pay trust prices, which are higher than that which will be fixed by the prison.

Prison Labor.

The superintendent of state prisons of New York in his annual report discusses the results of another year's experience with the system of employing convicts on state account. One of the interesting developments of the year is the competition which has appeared between various institutions for such work as is to be had. For instance, a plant was established at Sing Sing for the making of brushes and street brooms. The city of New York, the principal consumer, is now buying such supplies from the penitentiary of Kings county. Hence the plants at Sing Sing are practically idle. Other institutions are equally eager to avail themselves of the opportunity to employ their inmates at productive labor, it being recognized on all hands that steady, productive occupation is a distinctly beneficial factor in the régime of institution life. The superintendent, therefore, recommends the protection of any industry which has been carefully organized in one institution from competition by any other institution,

so long as it is able to meet the demand for the product.

The report of the warden of Sing Sing shows that on September 30 all but forty-one of the 1,250 prisoners were at work. But only one in three was engaged in productive industries. Many were employed in the ordinary prison work; some in the demolition of the outworn structures in the prison yard. To a degree the same condition exists in each of the prisons of the state. The earnings of the various prisons on this system of industrial employment are very light relative to the expenses of the institutions. For instance, at Sing Sing the net earnings are \$5,148.63, while the expenditures of the year were \$179,703.78. At Auburn the earnings are \$30,713.50, while the expenditures were \$134,821.75. In the same way the earnings at Clinton are \$35,188.20, while the expenditures were \$145,586.42.

To these statements regarding the working of the system this year might be added reports, whether justified or not, which have come to our attention, that the products of the state prisons are not always equal in quality to those supplied in other ways—a condition of affairs not unnatural in the inauguration of new industries, with labor presumably somewhat below the average in intelligence. It is not yet time to say positively whether the New York scheme to avoid competition with free labor can be carried out with such success as to justify its permanency. When-

ever, the increasing number of people who are tempted to rather unproductive industries, carried out under the influence of restriction, where it is a petition for out, so which other labor, which is compared as much as consumer buy the demons the state product goods in ing the put of p the effort being m goods hardly which p as not them a business take w as the n of min work c roads, works v attempt method and ob must e

ever, however, we read of the increasing difficulties which seem to be characteristic of the system, we are tempted to reiterate—what is rather unfair now that the plan has been inaugurated and must be carried out for good or for bad—that the idea which underlies it, that of restricting prison labor to fields where it does not come into competition with free labor, is not carried out, so long as work is undertaken which could be done, and would otherwise be done, by outside free labor, with ordinary profit. There is competition with free labor just as much when the state is the consumer as when private individuals buy the goods. Moreover, as is being demonstrated, the chances are against the state receiving as high a grade of products as it would if it bought goods in the open market. Considering the relatively very small output of prison labor, it seems to us that the efforts which have been and are being made to remove prison-made goods from the open market is hardly worth while. The only way in which prisoners can be employed so as not to affect free labor is to set them at some task which ordinary business enterprise could not undertake with profit, such, for instance, as the reclaiming of waste lands, or of mines which it does not pay to work commercially, the building of roads, or other extensive public works which would not otherwise be attempted. Of course, each of these methods brings its disadvantages and objectionable features, but if we must exclude prison labor from the

market, the way lies here rather than in juggling over who shall be the consumer.

The prison commissioners of New York have recommended the abolition of the lockstep, and a modification of the use of striped clothing on convicts. Similar measures have taken active form in New Jersey, in a series of bills introduced in the legislature. These, in effect, do away with the wearing of striped clothing by the convicts, the lockstep, the punishment of offenders without written complaint and a hearing before the proper authorities, and increase the amount of money to be given each convict upon his discharge. Convicts are given the right to address sealed letters to certain state officials. The bill, which primarily affects the state prison, would also apply to county jails and penitentiaries. Another bill provides for the appointment of a probation officer, for first offenders and young criminals. The changes have been introduced at the instance of Judge J. F. Fort, who has made a careful study of prison systems both in this country and abroad. There seems, however, to be considerable opposition to the measures, and it is very doubtful if any one of them will be passed.

Massachusetts Prisons

The annual report of the commissioners of prisons of Massachusetts for the year ending September 30, 1899, is a volume of nearly 300 pages, full of

practical and suggestive information concerning one of the most elaborate prison systems of the country. It touches upon the problem of the treatment of the prisoner from almost every side. We quote below some paragraphs of general interest as expressions of opinion based upon long and practical experience.

**Offences of
Youths.**

Perhaps the most vital question touched upon in the report is that of the relation of crime to the education of children. The subject of minor crimes committed by youth is deserving of attention in connection with prison population. There is reason to believe that in some localities children are allowed to commit petty crimes, larceny, etc., without much interference on the part of parents, police, or even those who are the victims of the crime. Such cases are often treated as of little importance, or even looked at in a spirit of levity. The result is that boys and girls are educated as criminals, and when older are surprised to find themselves in the prison or reformatory for doing very much the same things which they have been allowed to do with perfect impunity upon a smaller scale. One of the best methods of meeting the prison problem is so to educate the young that they will keep out of prison. Where parents neglect their duties, it would seem that something might be done by the police in this line. No effort should be spared to prevent the commitment to prison of the boy or girl. It is believed, however, that great good might be accomplished if, to a much greater extent than is now being done, this class of offenders could be brought into court and placed under the supervision of the probation officers.

The chaplain of the state prison in this connection mentions the kindergarten movement in San Francisco, the claim of which is, that "no graduate of the kindergarten system has ever been found in the courts." The chaplain goes on to say:

Suppose all exposed childhood in the state had proper kindergarten opportunities, what could we not expect for the future? As an incident in our own prison history, it is a fact that no scholar of our prison school has as yet been returned to prison.

**Discharged
Prisoners.**

The work of the state agent for aiding discharged convicts is a most interesting study. The average amount of assistance rendered is very small, but it seems to have been sufficient to help the man over the first obstacles to his taking up anew his place in the community. The agent calls attention to work started in the prison by philanthropic persons, and not carried out when the prisoner is discharged:

Harm is sometimes done by kind-hearted, impulsive persons, who, unintentionally no doubt, lead a prisoner to believe that his welfare is very dear to them. This prompts the prisoner upon his discharge to hunt up the person who has shown so much interest in him while he was in prison, with high hopes of a friend and employment. Too often he finds that more has been promised than can be performed, and his high hopes drop to a corresponding depth. There is a practical field for the employment of all the energy that can be evoked in behalf of discharged prisoners, if it can be directed to procuring employment for them at the time of their release.

The Conc
Reformat

of the
farm,
ture o
claimin
farms
opport
air for
the rel
him th
to fit h
many
to. T
inmate
ing th
appare

The
format
the fi
institu
he des
institu

A g
would
housed
in sick
ities f
most
afford
of ind
all and
are ta
skilful
work
of brin
of ea
would
engag
trades
compo
rudim
workin
specin
tinsmi

**The Concord
Reformatory.**

The report of the state reformatory at Concord speaks with satisfaction of the acquisition of a 300-acre farm, authorized by the legislature of 1898. In addition to reclaiming one of the abandoned farms of the state, it affords an opportunity for work in the open air for several weeks previous to the release of the prisoner, giving him the physical exercise necessary to fit him for just the work that in many instances he is best adapted to. The work performed by the inmates of the institution in reclaiming the waste land is everywhere apparent.

The superintendent of the reformatory takes occasion to review the fifteen years' progress of the institution. In the course of this, he describes the daily work of the institution:

A glimpse into the reformatory would show the prisoners properly housed, clothed, fed, and cared for in sickness, surrounded by such facilities for their improvement as the most modern penological methods afford. The workshops reveal a hive of industry, where there is work for all and all at work, and where they are taught to work continuously, skilfully, and rapidly, the inability to work being one of the chief means of bringing men into prison. A part of each day these same prisoners would be seen in the trade schools, engaged in one of the many different trades taught therein, under a competent instructor, acquiring the rudiments in wood-working, metal-working, masonry, or printing; and specimens of their work in plumbing, tinsmithing, blacksmithing, engrav-

ing, wood-turning, cabinet-making, wood-carving, and printing would be seen on every hand, both numerous and creditable, and manifesting a proficiency which dispels all doubt as to the possibility of placing criminals upon a proper industrial basis. Throughout the day all the prisoners are constantly employed in this way. In the evening they would be seen assembled in the different classes in the school-room. It is an inspiring sight to look in upon this building any night of the week, where the prisoners can be seen divided into sixteen classes, ranging from those struggling with the first elements of the English language up through the different grades to classes in ethics and civil government.

The superintendent speaks favorably of certain social organizations of the prisoners, which meet on Saturday and Sunday nights:

These are conducted under the supervision of one of the clerks of the institution, and two students from a neighboring seminary. They have proved valuable in the discipline of the institution, and have been a source of helpful recreation and instruction to the prisoners. These meetings, together with the religious gatherings of the institutions, are used as adjuncts to the schools, for purposes of education. They are also used with some regard to their disciplinary influence. Some prisoners may have at times misinterpreted the intent of these things, but it has not been so on the whole,—far otherwise. The prison population has been rendered distinctly amenable to good influences by this treatment. Such a substitution of moral influence and appeal to personal ambition and hope of personal success instead of physical pain, or the fear of it, depends largely upon the tact and moral qualifications of

the officers who administer the method. The more prison officers can be encouraged to cultivate their moral influence with prisoners as something additional to their official authority, the more effective prison life will be for good.

**Insanity
in Prisons.** The past year shows an increase over the previous year in the number of prisoners in Massachusetts who have been adjudged insane, and who have been removed to lunatic hospitals, the total number transferred during the year being eighty-seven. Of this increase the commissioners say:

It is undoubtedly true that prisoners are committed who are of unsound mind, but whose insanity is not fully established at the time of sentence. It should not be assumed, therefore, that imprisonment was in all cases the cause of insanity where it has been found necessary to remove the prisoner to some hospital.

The report of the probation officers, whose work has already been explained at some length in the REVIEW, shows that 5,626 persons were placed on probation during the year. This does not include cases of drunkenness referred to the officers. Of these there were during the year 51,141, and 23,255 cases were investigated.

**State Control
of
County Prisons** In the annual reports of the prison commissioners for the past three years, the advisability of the state managing all the prisons in the commonwealth has been set forth. The commissioners state that they see no

reason for changing their views as previously expressed.

**Prisoners' Aid
Association of
Canada.** The last report of the prisoners' aid association of Canada mentions with some pride a cottage home for girls, which was instituted by the association some three years ago. To this home 256 girls have been admitted. Of these 140 came from the police court, twenty-four came from the Mercer reformatory, thirty-one from the Toronto jail, twenty-four from hospitals, and thirty-seven from cities and towns other than Toronto. These girls were disposed of as follows: 136 went to situations, eight were sent to hospitals, thirty-six were sent to other institutions, and seventy-three returned to their homes. After careful inquiry at the end of the three years it has been found that 198 out of the total 256 are still doing well. Only one of the whole number has been lost sight of. It is stated that over one-half of the girls taken into the home would have been sent to the jail direct, and doubtless a large proportion of the others would have found their way there sooner or later had it not been for the rescue home.

The association shows good work accomplished in other directions. Of the 1,577 prisoners discharged during the last year from the city prisons, 565 have been aided, apparently for the most part by temporary meals and lodging. Work has been secured for seventy-eight. The association reports considerable legislative effort, especially toward the adoption of the indeterminate sentence and parole system. Steps have been taken also to bring about a better classification of prisoners in jails, and to secure scientific treatment of inebriates.



It is
York
duplic
struct
alone
world.
she ha
evils, l
degree
we ha
York
proble
forts l
proble
to-day
in ma
years
disting
tenem
though
accom
one w
for the
it wou
the qu



THE TENEMENT-HOUSE EXHIBITION OF 1899.

BY LAWRENCE VEILLER.

It has been reserved for New York city, the modern Rome, to duplicate evils of tenement-house structure known in ancient Rome alone among all the cities of the world. In characteristic fashion, she has not only duplicated these evils, but has intensified them to a degree beyond belief. Since 1846, we have been conscious in New York city of a tenement-house problem. Although numerous efforts have been made to solve the problem at different times, we stand to-day in a much worse condition in many respects than we did fifty years ago, enjoying the unenviable distinction of having the worst tenement houses in the world, although the highest rents for living accommodations are charged. If one were to try to find the reason for the failure to solve the problem, it would not be hard. Interest in the question, aroused spasmodically

every ten years, and then allowed to flag, is not calculated to secure either beneficent results or much progress toward improved conditions.

The latest movement in this direction, however, promises to have greater stability than any former one, and, therefore, holds out greater prospects of definite results. It was started about a year ago, by the formation of the tenement-house committee of the charity organization society of New York city. This committee devoted the first six months of its existence to attempting to secure from the local authorities an improved law relating to the construction of new tenement houses. None of its recommendations were adopted. The committee felt, however, that its six months' labor had been worth while, in that it has directed the attention of the community to what

is needed in legislation. Being convinced that no real progress was to be made unless the whole community was aroused to a knowledge of existing conditions, the committee then set itself at work to prepare for the public such a statement of tenement-house needs that no one concerned could longer neglect taking action looking toward the amelioration of the living conditions of the working people of New York.

The tenement-house exhibition which has just closed, and which was held in the old Sherry building on Fifth avenue for a period of two weeks, has been viewed by a large number of persons, and has given to many a conception of what the tenement-house problem is that could not have been given in any other way. It has shown, step by step, the different changes that have taken place in New York tenement houses, and by means of 1,000 photographs has illustrated nearly all the evils of the present tenement-house system. Special emphasis has been laid upon the terrible evils of the dark, unventilated airshafts, which are the chief characteristic of the present type of buildings. There are over forty-four thousand tenement houses in the boroughs of Manhattan and the Bronx, and in the year 1899 about two thousand new tenement houses were erected. These, as a rule, are built on lots twenty-five feet wide by one hundred feet deep, and are planned to accommodate four families on a floor. The buildings are six or

seven stories high, and each floor generally contains fourteen different rooms.

Only four of these rooms on each floor have direct light and air from the street or the small yard. The other ten open on a narrow "air-shaft," which is a wellhole closed at both ends, seldom more than five



A TYPICAL AIRSHAFT.

feet wide, when between two buildings, and often only two feet six inches wide, varying in length from forty to sixty feet, and being generally from sixty to seventy-two feet high.

The first of the accompanying illustrations represents a typical airshaft. As usual, it is closed at both ends.

It is to
eight
high.
it, the
the ro
run fr
rooms
baby's
windo
small
it insi
wider

And
shown
ends.
wide,
feet h
on it,
to the
a mor
which
to \$17
open
pictur
the wi
for th
count
The p
bright

The
below
There
Bring
ness a
its inc
annual
state
matt
of ou
pensa
kind,
the p
from

It is two feet ten inches wide, forty-eight feet long, and seventy-two feet high. Forty-two windows open upon it, the sole source of light and air to the rooms. Rents in this building run from \$10 a month for three rooms to \$17 for four rooms. The baby's bathtub is hung out of the window because the rooms are so small that there is no place to keep it inside. The shaft is only a little wider than the tub.

Another of these wellholes is shown. It, too, is closed at both ends. It is two feet four inches wide, forty-two feet long, and sixty feet high. Forty-five windows open on it, the sole source of light and air to the rooms. Rents run from \$11 a month for three rooms, two of which open entirely on the shaft, to \$17 for four rooms, three of which open entirely on the shaft. The picture shows the tenants utilizing the windows as well as the airshaft for the storage of furniture, on account of the smallness of the rooms. The picture was taken at 11 A. M., in bright sunlight.

The sunlight seldom penetrates below the fifth floor in these shafts. There is never a circulation of air. Bringing up children in such darkness and amidst filthy odors insures its inevitable result: \$25,000,000 are annually expended for charity in the state of New York. It is a simple matter to investigate the records of our reformatories, hospitals, dispensaries, and institutions of similar kind, to find out what proportion of the patients and inmates come from tenement houses. Here in

New York we know that nearly all are tenement-house dwellers. We also know that most of our criminals are young men between the ages of eighteen and twenty-five, and that the majority of them come from



TENEMENT SUNSHINE.

large cities, the breeding places of vice and crime.

The tenement-house exhibition has enforced the general opinion that has prevailed for some time as to the conditions causing these evils, by presenting in accurate, scientific form a number of maps showing the entire tenement city of New York. These maps show on a large scale each block in the tenement-house district, indicating which buildings are tenement houses and which are busi-

ness buildings or used for other purposes; they give the street number of each building, the height in stories, and show exactly the amount of land covered, the shape of the building, and the small amount left vacant for light and air. These maps are arranged in two parallel series, one of poverty maps, and the other of disease maps. Upon the poverty maps are stamped black dots, each of which indicates that five different families from the building marked have applied for charity to one of the large charitable societies of the city within a definite period of years. It seems beyond belief, yet it is a fact, that there is hardly a tenement house in the entire city that does not contain a number of these dots, and many contain as many as fifteen of them, meaning that seventy-five different families have applied for charity from that house. Similarly, on the disease maps, which are placed directly below the poverty maps, district by district, so that a comparative study of them may be made, there are stamped black dots, each indicating that from this house there has been reported to the Board of Health one case of tuberculosis within the last five years. While these dots do not cover the buildings to the same extent as they are covered in the poverty maps, it is appalling to note the extent of this disease. Nearly every tenement house has one dot on it, many have three or four, and there are some houses in Cherry street that contain as many as twelve. Other

colored dots indicate the prevalence of typhoid, diphtheria, etc. The maps also contain, stamped upon each block, a statement of the number of people living in that block, so that the student thus has opportunity of weighing all the conditions that help to produce the epidemics of poverty and disease. The maps, as they appear in the exhibition, might well earn for New York city the title of the city of living death. No other words so accurately and graphically describe the real conditions as these.

An accompanying illustration gives the appearance of an actual block on the east side of New York city, as it stood on January 1, 1900. The block is bounded by Chrystie, Forsythe, Canal, and Bayard streets. It includes thirty-nine tenement houses, containing 605 different apartments for 2,781 persons. Of these 2,315 are over five years of age, and 466 under five years. There are 263 two-room, 179 three-room, 105 four-room, and twenty-one five-room apartments, making a total of 1,588 rooms, or about two persons to a room, day and night. There are only 264 water-closets in the block. There is not one bath in the entire block. Only forty apartments are supplied with hot water. There are 441 dark rooms, having no ventilation to the outer air, and no light or air except that derived from other rooms. There are 635 rooms getting their sole light and air from dark, narrow airshafts. The disease map shows that in the last five years there have been recorded thirty-two cases

of tu
year t
this
show
been
from
a year
as ch
are w

Th
and c
muni
city
than
world
he p
mod
else,
one-
To b
of th
exhi
the
Lon
mod
datic

Be
tene
squa
met
ing
class
phot
trati
thin
acco
who
men
to p
and
who
well
Wa

of tuberculosis, and during the past year thirteen cases of diphtheria from this block, while the poverty map shows that 665 applications have been recorded. The rentals derived from the block amount to \$113,964 a year. It has been selected merely as characteristic of the city. There are worse.

The exhibition has been planned and developed to prove to the community the fact that in New York city the workingman is housed worse than in any other city in the civilized world, notwithstanding the fact that he pays more for such accommodations than is paid anywhere else, being compelled to give over one-fourth of his income for rent. To bring this fact home to the minds of the public a very extensive parallel exhibit has been developed, showing the great work accomplished in London and other cities in building model tenements for the accommodation of workingmen.

Beginning with the first model tenement in the world, the Pancras square building in London, of the metropolitan association for improving the dwellings of the industrial classes, there are shown a series of photographs, plans, and charts, illustrating this work. Among other things, there are shown the results accomplished by George Peabody, who gave \$2,500,000 to the workingmen of London at different times, to provide them with decent homes; and similar work of Lord Iveagh, who founded the Guinness trust, as well as the buildings of Sir Sidney Waterlow's improved industrial

dwelling's company, and the work accomplished by Miss Octavia Hill, the pioneer of the movement for improving old tenement houses by personal influence.

The committee has developed, also on a large scale, the work accomplished by different municipalities in Europe, in the direction of housing their working people. The very successful work of this kind accomplished in Liverpool, Manchester, Salford, Leeds, Glasgow, Edinburgh, and other cities is shown by photographs, plans, and elaborate tables of interesting statistics.

Believing that the tenement-house problem is at the root of most of our social evils, the committee has given attention to those subordinate problems which are affected by the housing problem, and which in turn deeply affect it. The need of playgrounds, parks, public baths, and libraries is shown in many ways. Probably the most interesting feature of this exhibit is a series of diagrams illustrating sixteen "city wildernesses" in New York. These are proposed as sites of needed parks, playgrounds, and public baths. The actual shape of the buildings on these blocks is shown; the number of people living in them, the character of the soil, whether near an underground stream or not, is stated; and the nearness to public schools, the character of the neighborhood, whether strictly a business neighborhood or one where business is crowding out tenements, is most carefully considered. The parks proposed indicate the minimum needs of the city

at the present time. They are what is now absolutely indispensable, not what is desirable or ideal. They indicate what the city must do if it expects to have decent citizens. It is the first time that so definite and positive a program of the kind has been placed before the city authorities, or has been given into the hands of those interested in promoting the welfare of the community. A series of photographs is displayed, showing how some waste places in the city have already been transformed into children's play-grounds, where thousands of children now enjoy themselves. There is no way in which the city can neglect its own welfare more than by neglecting its children. It is its first duty to see that they have an opportunity for play, that they have freedom for physical exercise, and that they are not repressed and hunted by the city authorities at every turn. It would be economical for the city to spend many millions of dollars in providing play places of this kind, thus cutting down its future appropriations for jails, almshouses, hospitals, and dispensaries.

More important than the opportunity for play is the opportunity for cleanliness. That we should have silently endured the reproach cast upon us by the last tenement-house investigation, which, in 1894, found that out of 255,000 persons with whom their investigation had been concerned, only 306 had an opportunity to bathe, is a disgrace, not only to the city of New York, but to the entire

state. If the old-fashioned idea that working people did not wish to bathe, and did not wish to be clean, were true, there might be some reason for this state of affairs, but if there was ever an absurd and foolish fallacy, this is it. It has been demonstrated over and over again, that if the working people have an opportunity to bathe, they are only too anxious to take advantage of it. The only public bath house in the city which keeps open all the year round, a small building with small accommodations, bathed over 120,000 persons during the last year, notwithstanding the fact that a fee of five cents was charged for each bath. And yet nothing is done to meet this crying need. The new tenement houses that are being built provide no bathing accommodations, and few public baths are being constructed to meet the needs of dwellers in existing buildings.

The problem of how properly to house single men and women is one that has been a source of annoyance to us in New York for many years. We have at last solved the problem of housing the men, although we have as yet only started our attempt to properly house single women. A very interesting part of the exhibition is that showing the different types of lodging houses in the city of New York, beginning with the indescribably filthy police station lodgings which Commissioner Roosevelt abolished, and working gradually up through the Bowery lodging houses to the municipal lodging

house
have s

One
house p
though
way, b
writer
questio
the fiel
movem
ways, b
in min
have in
lation v
us not
the hom
the th
live in
classes
and so
will be
do thei
penden
of wo
their m

Besid
illustra
housed
an elab
workin
city in
popula
that st
ditions
live in
in othe
except
find th
at all s
teneme

So
teneme
scienti

house and the Mills hotel which have supplanted the old buildings.

One way out of the tenement-house problem, a way that has been thought for many years the chief way, but one which seems to the writer to have slight bearing on the question, is to set the drift back to the fields, away from the city. Such movements must be undertaken always, but it must equally be borne in mind that we shall continue to have in our large cities a dense population which must be housed. Let us not deceive ourselves and neglect the housing of this population, with the thought that people "ought to live in the country." The well-to-do classes do not live in the country, and so long as they live here there will be a large number of persons to do their work, on whom they are dependent for their very lives, "hewers of wood and drawers of water," or their modern equivalent.

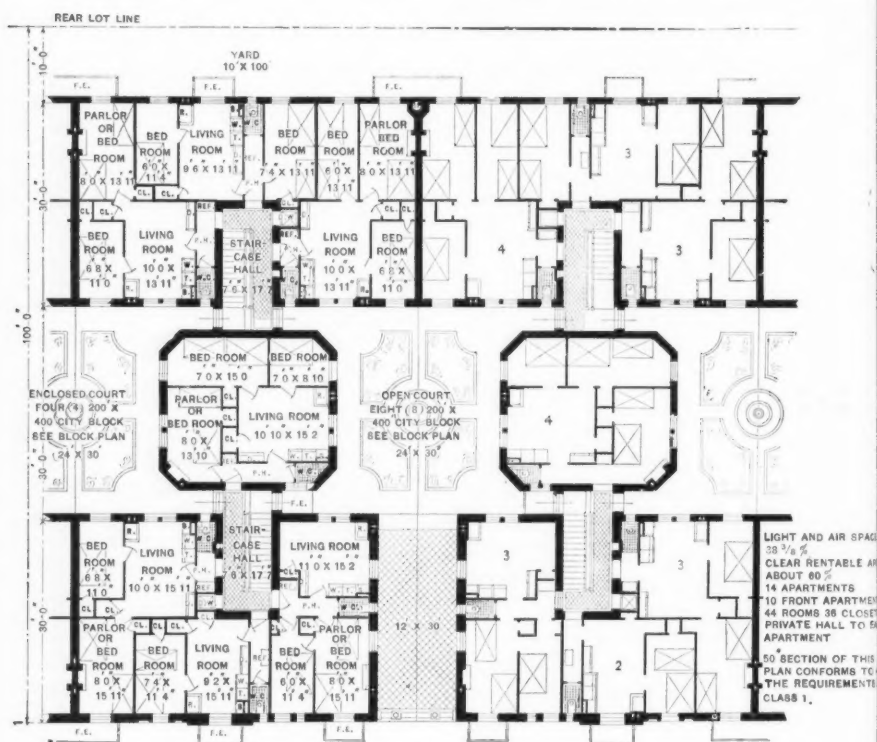
Besides the many photographs illustrating how workingmen are housed in European cities, there is an elaborate series showing the worst workingmen's dwellings in every city in the United States having a population of 25,000 or more, so that students may compare the conditions under which workingmen live in New York with the conditions in other American cities. In no city, except Boston and Chicago, do we find the slightest trace of conditions at all similar to those of New York's tenement houses.

So much of the solution of the tenement-house problem lies in the scientific planning of the buildings,

that any movement looking toward reform must concern itself primarily with this phase of the subject. Realizing this, the committee has tried to stimulate the interest of architects in the subject by offering a prize for the best type of plans for model tenements. One hundred and seventy different architects submitted drawings in this competition. The plans were for buildings on lots of various sizes—25 feet by 100 feet, 50 feet by 100 feet, 75 feet by 100 feet, and 100 feet by 100 feet. A special jury of award was appointed to adjudge the merits of the different drawings, and, after careful deliberation and study, the first prize was awarded to Mr. R. Thomas Short, a New York architect. A copy of his plan is given on the following page. This plan is designed for a tenement house on a lot 100 feet wide by 100 feet deep. A space 10 feet in width and 100 feet in length is left at the rear of the building for light and air, as required by the New York building laws. The main features of the plan are the large street court, which in its narrowest part is 12 feet wide, and one-half of which is 24 feet wide. This court is 60 feet in total depth, and provides an abundance of light and air for all the rooms. Being open to the street, it permits free circulation of air at all times, and has the additional advantage of giving a number of rooms an outlook upon the street, thus creating a greater number of "front apartments," and materially increasing the rental values of the building.

The plan provides accommodations for fourteen families on a floor, having a total of forty-four rooms, and an abundance of closets. The lack of closet space has been one of the serious inconveniences of tenement-house life. Besides this, the plan possesses the further advantage of

This is the secret of the whole tenement-house problem, because it means that there are no dark interior rooms. Besides these many advantages, there are four light staircases and staircase halls provided for the tenants, thus securing greater safety in case of fire, and removing to



PRIZE PLAN OF THE TENEMENT COMPETITION.

having a private hall for every set of rooms, thus insuring privacy to the tenants. Every family has its own water-closet entirely within its own control. There is no part of the building more than two rooms deep.

a considerable extent the social friction that exists in the ordinary tenement house. A large open court also provides a natural play-ground for the children, and does away with the necessity of subjecting them

to the Many are of contain develop that al posing some o

The to the a way that t lives u not to munity but ca and de of the to say that w idle an worse a for nea

The the tim ures. the pr every that s constan

Then In the secured erectio present

to the influences of the street. Many of the other plans submitted are of unusual merit, and many contain admirable ideas excellently developed. It is gratifying to learn that already several builders are proposing to erect tenement houses upon some of these plans.

The exhibition has demonstrated to the people of New York city, in a way not to be forgotten, the fact that two-thirds of its population lives under conditions that ought not to be tolerated by any community, and which can not help but cause poverty, crime, disease, and destitution. What the outcome of the exhibition will be, it is hard to say. It hardly seems possible that we are for another decade to sit idle and permit conditions to grow worse and worse, as they have done for nearly fifty years.

The writer, for one, believes that the time has come for radical measures. We can not expect to solve the problem by spasmodic efforts every ten years. The only way that success can come is through constant and continuous effort.

There are many things to be done. In the first place, legislation must be secured, absolutely prohibiting the erection of tenement houses of the present type. Then it will be neces-

sary to put forth considerable effort to see that such a law is enforced. This will take care of the future, but negative work of this kind alone will not solve the problem. Model tenements must be built by wealthy men as investments, and on a large scale. In the last ten years two such tenements were erected in New York. In the same time nearly 15,000 tenements of a bad type were built by speculative builders. If we are to keep up with conditions, let alone get ahead of them, we must take up this work on a larger scale than has ever before been attempted. There is much that can be done by men and women of means in improving many of the old, bad tenement houses, buying them up, one at a time, altering them to suit the needs of the tenants, and then, by wise management, making them financial successes. Nor is this all that has to be done before it can be felt that New York affords decent living conditions. There is opportunity for nearly every form of social effort. The model tenement is the best kind of a social settlement. There is no other way in which so much personal influence can be exerted as in managing such a tenement.

DR. SOUTHWOOD SMITH,

PIONEER OF ENGLISH SANITARY REFORM.

BY MRS. JAMES T. FIELDS.

Among the books published by the famous house of William Blackwood and Sons in the year 1898, there is no one of greater human interest than the life of Dr. Southwood Smith, the grandfather of Miss Octavia Hill.

The influence of Miss Hill upon her century in London, and, consequently, upon the English-speaking world, has been of such a nature that the character of her progenitors possesses a peculiar interest. She has awakened universal attention to the necessities of the poor in large cities, both by her own personal devotion to them in their homes and by her straightforward statements in speaking and writing, which amount, with her, to a new form of eloquence.

The life of Dr. Southwood Smith was written forty years after the death of their grandfather by a sister of Miss Hill, Mrs. C. L. Lewes. She tells us that her grandfather was born in 1788, and her first remembrance of him was when she was a little child and he a man about fifty years of age. Dr. Smith was born into a family of Calvinistic dissenters in Somersetshire, who intended him for a minister in that church; but, at the age of eighteen, to the great displeasure of his family, (who were people of narrow means,

and he had been studying through the benefaction of a scholarship), he declared that he must break away from that idea altogether. His family then cut him adrift at once and forever. Fortunately, during his college course he had become intimate at the house of a Mr. Read, a large manufacturer in Bristol, who was a man of noble character, one of the managers of the college and a gentleman of sympathies wide enough to understand the conscience of the young student; nor did he frown upon an attachment which had grown up between his daughter Anne and the youthful thinker. In the end they were married and enjoyed a few years of great happiness.

Dr. Smith was only twenty-four years old when his wife died, leaving him with two little girls. His position was a very difficult one. He had not, up to that moment, made choice of his profession, but, leaving his children to the "gentle care" of their mother's relations, he went at once to Edinburgh to apply himself to the study of medicine.

At first, writes his granddaughter, he lived quite alone, but, finding it more than he could bear, he returned to England to fetch his eldest child, then four years old. . . . His interest in religious matters at this period was greater than ever, for the change in his opinions, in leading

him to
the divi
ardor fo
personal
faith and
comfort
side pur
gathered
little co
Sunday.
in the y
little gr
mother,
with him
from the
and drin
early ag
destined
lessons
ends.

In 18
to take
in the l
west of
gathered
on Sun
on week

At the
ried aga
where h
to the
There v
second
in child

From
ended, a
Smith t
work of
His earl
question
two nu
Review
no one l
the end
became
drew to

him to take a more loving view of the divine nature, had increased his ardor for the truth, and his own personal sorrow had heightened his faith and made him wish to carry its comfort to others. Therefore, beside pursuing his medical studies, he gathered round him in Edinburgh a little congregation for service every Sunday. . . . Much interest was felt in the young, pale student and his little girl, for all this time, my mother, the little Caroline, lived with him, cheering his home-coming from the university to their rooms, and drinking in from him at a very early age,—as I, her daughter, was destined to do many years after—lessons of self-devotion to great ends.

In 1816 Dr. Smith left Edinburgh to take up the practice of medicine in the little town of Yeovil in the west of England. Here he again gathered a congregation, preaching on Sunday and practicing medicine on week days during four years.

At the end of this period he married again and removed to London, where he was appointed physician to the London fever hospital. There were three children by the second marriage, two of whom died in childhood.

From the time his studies were ended, and he felt himself free, Dr. Smith threw himself into the great work of the prevention of disease. His earliest writing on the "sanitary question" is to be found in the first two numbers of the *Westminster Review* published in 1825. Of course no one book contained the results of the endless investigation which now became the labor of his life. He drew to his side many of the fore

most thinkers, writers, and philanthropists of his time, and the present state of sanitary knowledge in England can easily be traced back to these beginnings. . . . The hostility of English physicians soon began to show itself. Inadequate protection against fever and cholera; the difference between epidemic and contagious diseases; "body-snatching," and how to prevent it, were all three subjects of continual and successful warfare,—warfare not without deep trouble and scars, but carried forward in the "sweetness and light" of knowledge and wisdom to noble ends.

The aged philosopher, Jeremy Bentham, left his own body to the Webb street school of anatomy, and Dr. Smith, who had been his physician, pronounced the eulogy over it. It was a most impressive scene as the body lay in the small circular room of the college, the only light falling from above, and the noble head and hands expressive of placid dignity and benevolence. A storm arose just as Dr. Smith began to speak, and the profound silence of the listeners, broken by peals of thunder and the reflection of the lightning, which seemed to vitalize the still face before them, rendered the words of the speaker more touching and more impressive to the end. "Never did corpse of hero on the battle-field, with his martial cloak around him, or funeral obsequies chanted by stoled and mitred priests in gothic aisles, excite such emotions as the stern simplicity of that hour." It was the moment

of victory over the ignorance of the past.

In the year 1833 it became evident to the minds of some of the English people who keep their eyes open to the suffering of the poor, that great abuses had crept into the factory system. A royal commission of inquiry was appointed, consisting of three persons, Mr. Tooke, Mr. Edwin Chadwick, and Dr. Southwood Smith.

"Their first work was to send district commissioners into the manufacturing regions to collect evidence, and the results of those inquiries were embodied in the general report." It was found that children not more than five years old were obliged to work as many hours as the adults, and of course they were growing up without education and with ruined health. The reports of the condition of the factory children are really too sad to read, too sad to quote, since the evil is now abolished. It was eleven years later before the condition of children working in mines was even taken into consideration.

Objection and opposition sprang up on every hand. There was even a feeling of revolt against the government for wishing to interfere with the "liberty of the subject." Nevertheless the reformers obtained perfect success that same year; nearly all the recommendations of the report were adopted, and the only modifications of the act of 1833 which have been made since have been mere extensions of its principles.

"Perhaps the most necessary and the most tried quality in a reformer," writes Mrs. Lewes, "is patience." Notwithstanding all Dr. Smith's labors since the year 1830 to prevent fever in London, seven long years passed before he was able to awaken a proper interest in the subject.

At last, in 1837, a frightful epidemic fever broke out in the city, arousing general alarm, and Dr. Smith was appointed by the poor-law commissioners to report upon the condition of the eastern districts.

The title of his report is striking; he called it, "Report on the physical causes of sickness and mortality to which the poor are particularly exposed, and which are capable of prevention by sanitary measures."

The details of facts, which Dr. Smith collected himself in the Bethnal green and Whitechapel districts, are dreadful indeed. "I traversed," he says, "a circle of from six to seven miles in extent. I wrote the account of the places on the spot." . . . "In many parts of both these districts," he continues, "fever of a malignant kind and fatal character is always more or less prevalent." It appears that when the facts of the existing and preventable fever conditions were presented to the poor-law board, they were of such a terrible nature as to attract the attention of public men, but it was difficult for them to believe that such things could exist.

The Marquis of Normanby, then secretary of state for the home department, "could hardly conquer a belief that there must have been some exaggeration. My grand-

father, him to Bethna which far," h exagger descrip they ha an ade

At th ward t compar district terest of Lon eloquen lords, a to reco mande of child became called f caused drawing servatio ment, w that he into th reform. the op the o and the involve achieve

Dr. S holding His wor slacken years of had bee himself, made re

There

father," says Mrs. Lewes, "took him to see some of the places in Bethnal green and Whitechapel, which the report had described. So far," he said afterward, "from any exaggeration having crept into the description which had been given, they had not conveyed to my mind an adequate idea of the truth."

At this period Lord Ashley, afterward the Earl of Shaftesbury, accompanied Dr. Smith into the fever districts, and the result of the interest excited was that the Bishop of London presented the question eloquently before the house of lords, and the evils seemed about to receive the attention they demanded. Meantime, the oppression of children in the mines of England became one of the miseries which called for Dr. Smith's attention. He caused an illustrated report, "the drawings made under my own observation," to be presented to parliament, which so moved Lord Ashley that he threw himself with ardor into this new branch of necessary reform. It is amazing to read of the opposition which these questions of simple humanity excited, and the time and labor which were involved before any change could be achieved.

Dr. Smith was now, as it were, holding the reins of many steeds. His work at the fever hospital never slackened until his death, after forty years of service. Three times he had been stricken down with fever himself, but his fine constitution had made recovery possible.

There was yet another plan which

required much labor. This was the establishment of what he called "a home in sickness," a place in London for lonely persons of the middle classes who could not secure good care in time of illness. Charles Dickens was one of its supporters, and, speaking of the quiet site chosen and the noise elsewhere, Dickens wrote: "Is it not a wonder how the dwellers in narrow ways can bear it? Think of a sick man in such a place as St. Martin's court . . . the hum and noise always present to his senses, and of the stream of life that will not stop pouring on, on, through all his restless dreams, as if he were condemned to lie dead, but conscious, in a noisy churchyard, and had no hope of rest for centuries to come."

About 1840 Dr. Smith conceived the idea that "houses might be built from which fever could be banished even amongst the classes and in the districts in which, up to that time, disease had most fatally prevailed."

A good committee was formed, the proposed houses were built and occupied, and thus a first step was taken towards "the better housing of the poor," an idea which has more than fulfilled the hopes of its originators. "During all my early years," writes his granddaughter, "he had two works going on—the profession which occupied his days, and the work for the various reforms, which occupied the early mornings and quiet Sundays. . . . He worked enthusiastically, and with unfailing energy, beginning to write at four or five (sometimes even at three) o'clock in

the morning, and only returning home to dinner about eight o'clock in the evening. Our hillside," she continued, for Dr. Smith had removed to a delightful house at Highgate, "was a peaceful and lovely spot for him to come to after the day's work in London, and he made the most of the hours spent at home. . . . These hours were indeed happy ones, whether in summer, spent in the field, out in the starlight, or in winter round his hospitable fire; for he liked to have, and helped to make, happiness around him. . . . He rarely spoke of things merely personal, and there was an absence of all littleness in his conversation which was striking. A mixture of high thought with simplicity of expression was characteristic of him."

The period was beginning when the gratitude of England was to find expression. Again and again the thanks of parliament were awarded to him, and in an address by one of its members, Sir Robert Harry Inglis, we read: "The country is indebted to Dr. Southwood Smith and Mr. Slaney for its first knowledge of the real condition of the poorer classes." Mr. Slaney himself said, "For the powerful manner in which he had first described the actual conditions of the poor in their present dwellings; for the clearness with which he had shown that their most grievous sufferings were adventitious and removable; and for the untiring zeal with which he had continued to press these truths on the attention of the legislature and the public, Dr. Southwood Smith deserves

the gratitude of his country." To this noble testimony his granddaughter adds these words: "As far as unceasing labor could enable him, he carried on both his professional and his public work; but where it became a question between private fortune and public good he never hesitated — he steadily and persistently chose the latter."

Nevertheless, there were ten long years of struggle, from 1838 to 1848, before any very widespread system of sanitary reform was adopted. During this period, as the first witness called by a committee of the house of commons appointed to look into these matters, Dr. Smith said: "These miseries will continue till the government will pass measures which shall remove the sources of poison and disease from these places. All this suffering might be averted. These poor people are victims that are sacrificed. The effect is the same as if twenty or thirty thousand of them were annually taken out of their wretched homes and put to death, the only difference being that they are left in them to die."

Dr. Smith first tried one way and then he would try another way to accomplish his ends; he never stopped to think or imagine that they would not be accomplished; he knew, as we know, that what is good to do for others can be done and must be done at all cost of money and time and strength and endeavor. Finally an association of men who had shown their interest in such matters, in and out of parliament,

was
comm
meth
Lord
will
to wo
throu
healt
and t
end.
of av
work
subje
and p
taking
his co
whole
exam
shoul
In
was
the y
From
1854
place
of th
Lord
a per
could
with
Dr. S
to be
gover
the fu
"The
it wa
hall,
Lord
wick,
sanita
ful ce
gover
"T

was formed by Dr. Smith, and his committee proved the most efficient method of action. Lord Normanby, Lord Ashley, and others, whose names will not be forgotten, were willing to work. They obtained the passage through parliament of the public health act, framed by themselves, and this was the beginning of the end. Also Dr. Smith saw the value of awakening the attention of the working classes themselves to this subject. For this purpose he wrote and published a masterly address, taking the people quite simply into his confidence and telling them the whole story. It is an excellent example of what such an appeal should be.

In spite of all his labor the bill was "thrown out" in 1847, but in the year 1848 it was finally accepted.

From this time until the year 1854 Dr. Smith entered and held his place in official life. The passing of the public health act bill led Lord Morpeth to see at once that a perfect inauguration of the work could scarcely be accomplished without the constant attention of Dr. Smith. He was warmly urged to become one of the heads of a government department devoted to the furtherance of sanitary measures. "The general board of health," as it was called, sat in offices at Whitehall, where, in daily conference with Lord Ashley and Mr. Edwin Chadwick, Dr. Smith could carry out sanitary measures as from a powerful centre, having the authority of a government department.

"Thus for six years earnest men

at the head of a health department spread information and gave advice. The newspapers of the period contained many notices of the various practical measures devised by this department, so that at last a widespread interest was aroused." Dr. Smith retired from official life in 1854. The strain had been very great, and he needed rest.

The following year he was invited to lecture in Edinburgh. A visit to Alnwick castle on the way gave him great pleasure, as well as the brilliant reception given to him and his lecture on "epidemics." His granddaughter writes of this period: "Among the various sources of comfort, I must mention the great happiness which arose from the opening out of the lives of two of his granddaughters, Miranda and Octavia Hill, for it was at this time that they, at the ages of nineteen and sixteen, took the responsibilities of their lives upon themselves, and began the great and good work which they have since carried to such wide issues.

Dr. Smith died at the age of seventy-one, at Florence, where his daughter Emily had lived for many years. In her pleasant home, and surrounded by his granddaughters, he sank quietly to rest, after the warfare of his life.

We need not dwell upon the struggles of his career; they were many and difficult, as those who are already in the heat and conflict of our own day must understand. But, as he once said, "I have indeed succeeded. I have lived to see seven million pounds of the public money

expended on this great cause. If any one had told me when I began that this would be, I should have considered it absolutely incredible."

Happily, the hardships of such a life come gradually, and are not to be foreseen. Forearmed the true spirit may be; and much of the pur-

pose of this book would be lost if one overlooked the wonderful patience, the humility, and, above all, the self-devotion, which marked Dr. Southwood Smith's career. He recognized the right of the least of the children of this world, and held himself ready to struggle, and to die if need be, that justice might be done.

NEW PLANS FOR TRAINING CHARITY WORKERS.

The evidence is increasing that there is a demand for trained workers in the field of charity and correction. This demand is not only for agents and superintendents of relief and charity organization societies, superintendents and matrons of asylums, and others who enter upon this work for the purpose of earning their living, but also for philanthropic workers who can give all or a portion of their time without compensation, and who are willing to become familiar with the conditions of life among the poor, and accustomed to judge sympathetically and clearly of the best methods of relieving their needs. The charity organization societies have themselves met this need in a measure. Many persons trained in their various departments have subsequently either taken paid positions or engaged in work as citizens in the various relief agencies of the community.

Details have already been given in the REVIEW concerning the systematic effort that has been made by

the New York society during the last two summers to extend such training through its summer school. Forty-eight students have attended the two courses, attendance having been limited to those who are college graduates or who have had experience in some form of philanthropic work. Many of these students have already been summoned to positions of responsibility. One is manager of a charity organization society in an eastern city and one in a western city; three are head residents of settlements; three are giving lectures in universities, and two have organized co-operative charitable movements in their cities on the principles of organized charity. Nine others are already employed in different forms of charitable work, or are residents in settlements. All of the remainder are rendering, in various ways, unpaid services in their respective cities and states.

The standing committee of the New York charity organization society on philanthropic education has recently considered with thor-

ough
alterna
ment o
sugges
peal fo
million
equipp
ary gra
manen
ships w
hold th
ance of
cities,
philant
learned
those
Another
versitie
certain
to this
the col
be ask
training
didates
securin
their p
mittee
entativ
univers
vassed
view, a
interest
The qu
still fun
tees ha
how fa
tion to
last sug
In th
cided t
most s
tained
remain

oughness and care various possible alternatives in the further development of such training. Among the suggestions considered was an appeal for an endowment of half a million dollars to found a thoroughly equipped training school of seminary grade, with a small corps of permanent instructors, and with scholarships which would enable those who hold them to work under the guidance of such instructors in different cities, where the various kinds of philanthropic activity might best be learned by personal experience under those who are engaged in them. Another suggestion was that the universities should be asked to devote certain of their present scholarships to this purpose; and still another, that the colleges and universities should be asked to give facilities for the training of special students not candidates for degree, but desirous of securing the best preparation for their practical labors. As the committee has in its membership representatives of three of the principal universities, the subject was canvassed from the academic point of view, as well as from that of persons interested in the charitable societies. The question is one that will need still further study, and sub-committees have been appointed to consider how far the universities are in position to co-operate along the two lines last suggested.

In the meantime it has been decided that, assuming the fullest and most satisfactory co-operation is obtained from that quarter, there will remain an essential part of the task

which must devolve upon the charity organization societies. The New York society, consistently with the experiment already taken, will ask for funds to enable it to retain under the training of the officers of the society such members of the summer classes as give promise of doing useful work, and also to enable the society to train for shorter periods persons who desire to take such training but who are not in position to spare any considerable period of time for it. What is proposed is that these persons shall have the best possible opportunity to study the various forms of charitable relief in a great city and to come into contact with the persons having charge of such relief work. A modicum of theoretical instruction would also be given in the history and treatment of the dependent and delinquent classes as found in the experience of the world. A part of this instruction would be given in the offices of the society, and arrangements could be made with the higher institutions of learning in New York city for the opening of lecture courses which bear upon questions of charity and poor relief, and for the use of libraries and other sources of information.

The practical training can best be given in the offices of the society itself, under the superintendence of its staff of skilled officials. Provision can be made for visiting the various institutions in New York and its vicinity, which present all forms of institutional and personal philan-

thropy. Experience has shown that the hearty co-operation of the authorities can be secured for this purpose and the best guidance supplied.

To accomplish these results on a worthy scale provision should be made for an annual income of perhaps \$5,000. Students who are pursuing such training would be only incidentally useful to the society, as their tasks would be assigned primarily with a view to their educational results, and definite provision would need to be made for instruction, consultations, supervision of visits and of reading, and for inspection of the work done whenever definite tasks were assigned. Provision would also need to be made for scholarships. An endowment fund of \$100,000,

the income of which could be used for a systematic development of this work, would, it is believed, accomplish a good to the community out of all proportion to the expenditure. The New York society indicates its willingness to receive and hold in trust funds for the purpose mentioned.

The committee which will direct the summer class of 1900 and will strengthen any larger movement that may be rendered possible consists of the following persons: Robert W. de Forest, Mrs. Charles R. Lowell, Mrs. Glendower Evans, Prof. Richmond Mayo-Smith, Dr. Silas F. Hall, Dr. E. R. L. Gould, Prof. Samuel M. Lindsay, Jeffrey R. Brackett, and Homer Folks.

THE CARE OF DESTITUTE, NEGLECTED, AND DELINQUENT CHILDREN.

(AMERICAN PHILANTHROPY OF THE NINETEENTH CENTURY.)

BY HOMER FOLKS.

V.—PUBLIC SYSTEMS OTHER THAN ALMSHOUSE CARE.

- a. The state school and placing-out system.
- b. The county children's home system.
- c. Public support in private institutions.
- d. The boarding-out and placing-out system.

The Boarding-out and Placing-out System. Massachusetts and Pennsylvania have systems for caring for destitute children which differ from all the preceding, in, that the children are boarded in private families until permanent free homes in families are found for them. The two states

differ radically in that the former does the work directly through its own officials, while the latter works through a private society, the children's aid society of Pennsylvania.

It will be remembered that the opening of the last quarter of the century found Massachusetts with her state juvenile paupers collected in the state primary school at Monson, except that some seventy-five remained at the state almshouse at Tewksbury, and a less number at the third state almshouse, now called the state farm, at Bridgewater. There was also a state visiting agency charged with the supervision

of about a thousand children placed out in families from the state primary school and the two state reformatories. The various cities and towns cared for their poor, adult and juvenile, as they chose. In 1879 the state work was reorganized, the state primary school and the state reform schools being placed under a board of trustees, and the visiting agency was abolished, its duties being assigned to the state board of health, lunacy, and charity, which board was also given general supervision over all the state charitable institutions, hospitals for the insane, and the reform schools just mentioned.

In 1882 the custom of boarding out a few children from the state primary school was begun. In that year legislation was enacted for the commitment to the custody of the state board of neglected children (between three and sixteen years of age) by the courts. In the following year legislation was enacted for the commitment to the board of infants under three years of age by overseers of the poor. All these children were, as a rule, placed temporarily in the state primary school, and later placed out in families with or without board. From time to time laws have been enacted extending the classification of children committed to the custody of the state board of charities. In 1880 a law was enacted for the commitment of foundlings to their care. These children were, after 1884, placed directly in families at board. Gradually, as the boarding-out and placing-out systems developed, it was found possible to decrease the numbers remaining in the state primary school. In 1876 this institution sheltered 485 children; on September 30, 1894, the number had been reduced to 121. The number of

children boarded in families had meanwhile increased to 582, and the number self-supporting in families to 1,459. By 1894 the state board of charities had placed so many children from the state primary schools in families that the abolition of the school was possible, and in 1895, at the suggestion of the trustees of state institutions, the buildings were given over to the state to be used as a hospital for epileptics, most of the remaining children being placed in families at board. Since that date Massachusetts has cared for its destitute and neglected children who are state charges wholly in families, and boarding places have been secured for a few of the younger children committed to the reform schools.

Notwithstanding the new classes of children who have been added to the state list, the number of children maintained at state expense has increased only from 1,142 in 1876 to 1,634 in 1898, including, in both years, inmates of reform schools, while the number of children under the supervision of the state, but self-supporting in families, increased from 1,000 in 1876 to 1,645 in 1898. The percentage of juvenile state charges in institutions, in free homes, and in boarding homes, in 1876 and in 1898, are as follows:¹

	1876. Per cent.	1898. Per cent.
In institutions, - - - -	51	15
In families without board, -	47	55
In families with board, - -	2	30

In the city of Boston, destitute and neglected children were maintained in 1875 at the house of industry (almshouse and workhouse) on Deer island, except that the older pauper boys were in one wing of the house of reformation. Although probably not in actual association with adult paupers, the fact that they

¹ This whole matter is very clearly set forth in a chart opposite page 41 of the nineteenth annual report of the state board of lunacy and charity.

were on the same island and under the same authorities, associated the two classes in the public mind. In 1877 a distinct advance was made by the removal of the boys to what had been the Roxbury almshouse, but which now became the Marcella street children's home. On March 1, 1878, there were 618 children under the care of the city—160 "pauper children," 128 neglected children, 120 truants, and 210 juvenile offenders. In 1881 another advance was made by removing to a building near the Marcella street home, and thereafter reckoned as a part of it, the pauper and neglected girls from Deer island,—the final separation, territorially, of destitute children from pauper adults in Boston, although they remained under the same administrative control until June, 1897, when the children were placed under the control of a board of seven unpaid trustees. About 1889, the city also began the practice of boarding out the younger children dependent upon the city, especially infants. Agents were employed also for finding free homes for children. On January 31, 1898, there were 420 children under supervision by the city children's department in free homes, and 325 in boarding homes. On the same date there were only 160 children in the Marcella street home, the number having been reduced from 321 earlier in the year, by the extension of the placing-out and boarding-out systems. Later in the year, in November, 1898, the Marcella street home was discontinued altogether, the children being placed out in families. Thus by a natural development of the institutional and placing-out systems, side by side, the city of Boston, in 1898, followed the example of the state, which, four years earlier, had abandoned its state primary school, both city and state thus arriving by gradual stages at

the plan of caring for all destitute and neglected children in family homes. The parental (truant) school, which had been differentiated from the house of reformation on Deer island in 1877, was removed therefrom to West Roxbury in May, 1895, another step in classification.

In the cities and towns of Massachusetts, other than Boston, destitute children are under the charge of overseers of the poor, and are either kept in almshouses (contrary to law) or placed in families to board, or in free homes, or boarded in institutions. Children can not be legally retained in an almshouse for a longer period than two months unless they are (1) under four years of age; (2) under eight years of age, with their mothers; or (3) so defective in body or mind as to render their retention in the almshouse desirable. In a few instances the children are cared for through the Boston children's aid society. The state board of charities is charged with the duty of visiting, at least once each year, children supported by cities and towns, and, as a matter of fact, semi-annual visits are made. If children are retained in almshouses contrary to law, they are removed therefrom by the state board, and the cost of their support is charged to the town of their settlement. The number of children fully supported by public authorities in the state on March 31, 1898, was as follows:

	In alms- houses.	Else- where.
By the state, - - - - -	56	1,349
By the city of Boston, - - - -	18	461
By other cities and towns, -	203	385
	277	2,195

This state thus cares for one and a half times as many children as the cities and towns, including Boston. For some years the state board of charities has recommended that the

system
tute a
wards
state
of t
There
for m
and
body
dren'
know
truste
their
vision
This
and t
dren
care n
any in
1898,
work
partn
poor,
of sta
ent of
ing al
one a

Penns

passed
autho
dren
thoug
privat
the g
doing
ing p
charg
tution
depen
poor
nine
eight
count
there
befor
law,
societ
once
autho
dren.

system be unified and that all destitute and neglected children become wards of the state, supported from state funds, and under the control of the state board of charities. There was a considerable movement for making the state board of lunacy and charity a strictly supervisory body and for creating a state children's department, which should be known as the children's bureau, with trustees appointed by the governor, their work to be under the supervision of the state board of charity. This failed to pass the legislature, and the executive care of the children in the state board's custody or care remains without supervision by any independent board. On July 1, 1898, the state board reorganized its work by abolishing its previous departments of indoor and outdoor poor, and creating a superintendent of state adult poor and a superintendent of state minor wards, thus collecting all children in its custody under one administrative control.

Pennsylvania, when the "children's law" was passed in 1883, left the local authorities to provide for the children as best they might. Although the state subsidizes many private institutions, it does so on the general ground that they are doing good and presumably preventing persons from becoming public charges, and not because the institutions receive and care for public dependents. The county system of poor relief prevails in some forty-nine counties, the town system in eighteen of the most sparsely settled counties. By a happy coincidence, there had been organized a year before the passage of the children's law, the progressive children's aid society of Pennsylvania, which at once offered to assist the local authorities in caring for their children. In many of the counties,

including the large cities, this offer was accepted, and the resulting plan, may, with exceptions noted later, be regarded as the Pennsylvania system. The children's aid society has at no time in its history conducted an institution, but has relied wholly upon the boarding-out and placing-out systems, except for feeble-minded or persistently vicious children, or for those needing hospital treatment. The co-operation with the city and county of Philadelphia has been its most important work. The destitute children who are accepted as public charges by an agent of the charities department, are either sent directly to the society office, or sent for not more than sixty days to the children's asylum across the road from the almshouse. They are placed at board in families, selected by the society, and nearly always in the country. The city pays the society \$2 per week for their care while boarding. The society pays the families from \$1.75 to \$2.50 per week, besides furnishing clothing, medical attendance, and other expenses. While boarding, the children are visited by an agent of the city department and by the society's agents, both of which endeavor also to find free homes for such of the children as are not soon to be returned to their parents. Catholic children are, however, generally sent to catholic institutions, the city agent retaining control of them and returning them to parents or relatives, or placing them in free homes, as circumstances warrant. Under this plan the number of children supported by the city has remained very small; in fact being very little in excess of the number of children in the almshouse seventy-five years ago. On May 22, 1826, there were 145 children in the children's asylum at the almshouse; on July 1, 1899, the city was supporting eighty-three

children in private families and 100 in institutions. The cost to the city is proportionately slight, and the children in free or boarding homes are undoubtedly under the most favorable circumstances for their development. That the system thus outlined has been most humane and beneficent in its effect upon the children under its care is undoubted. That it has reduced the public expenditure to a minimum is also true. The element of weakness in the plan, regarded as a system for the state, is that it is dependent upon voluntary co-operation between the local officials in sixty-three counties and a private society,—or rather several societies, since the original society has divided into several branches, the parent society remaining the larger and more active. This renders it impossible to secure a uniformly efficient system in all parts of the state. Two counties built children's homes under the control of their poor authorities, two others board out their children under their own care, while eleven counties place their children in institutions with per capita payment for their care until free homes are found. Even Philadelphia places its catholic children in institutions, and for the last three or four years has placed nearly half of its protestant children in a children's home instead of in families under the care of the children's aid society. Admirable as the co-operation between the children's aid society and certain of the counties has been, it does not cover the state as a whole, and, it is to be feared, lacks the elements of authority and permanency.¹

New Jersey. In New Jersey, until 1899, destitute children were city and town charges and were provided for either by being kept

in the almshouses, as they were to the number of about 500, or being placed in families by indenture, or by being placed in private institutions at a per capita rate, the latter plan, however, not being used extensively. In 1895 the governor appointed a commission to investigate the subject, which commission reported to the legislature of 1897 a bill for the creation of a state board of children's guardians. The bill failed of passage in 1897, but became a law in 1899. The governor appoints a board of seven persons, to whose custody all children becoming public charges are to be committed. The children are to be placed in families at board until free homes can be found. The board of the children is, however, to be paid by the counties from which the children come. It is too early to report upon the operations of this act, but they will be followed with great interest by all students of the subject.

Other States. The states of Illinois and Missouri, notwithstanding their large cities, have been singularly backward in making any public provision for destitute and neglected children. Neither state forbids the retention of children in almshouses. In Illinois the poor, including children, are a county charge, and children are kept in almshouses, placed directly in families, placed in the care of placing-out societies with a per capita allowance—usually \$50—for expenses of placing out, or, especially in Cook county (Chicago), placed in private institutions, being paid for by a per capita rate. The number of children so supported is not large, owing, perhaps, to constitutional limitation of such appropriations. An unsuccessful effort

¹The work of the children's aid society for other than public charges will be alluded to later.

was made to establish a public institution for dependent children, but it was not accepted. The children are now sent to the almshouses.

In the states mentioned, public institutions for children are not established. In Alabama, the children are sent to the almshouses. In Idaho, the children are sent to the almshouses. In Mississippi, the children are sent to the almshouses. In North Carolina, the children are sent to the almshouses. In Utah, the children are sent to the almshouses. In Vermont, the children are sent to the almshouses.

The opening of the almshouses indicates the substitution of public provision for private provision. The states of Illinois and Missouri, indeed, in 1735, caused the almshouses to be abolished, and the children were placed in families. In the other states, the almshouses are still maintained, and the children are sent to the almshouses. In the states of Illinois and Missouri, the children are sent to the almshouses. In the other states, the children are sent to the almshouses.

was made in 1888 to secure the establishment of a state public school for dependent children. Conditions are much the same in Missouri, except that many destitute children are sent to the reform school maintained by the city of St. Louis.

In the states not already mentioned in this chapter there are no public systems of caring for destitute children except outdoor relief, almshouses, and occasional placing out in families either directly or through a placing-out society. This list includes the following states: Alabama, Arkansas, Florida, Georgia, Idaho, Iowa, Kentucky, Louisiana, Mississippi, North Carolina, South Carolina, South Dakota, Tennessee, Utah, Vermont, Virginia, Washington, West Virginia, and Wyoming.

VI—NEGLECTED CHILDREN.

The statutes in force prior to the opening of the nineteenth century indicate that children rarely became the subjects of public care except because of the poverty of their parents, or their own wrongdoing. The statutes of Massachusetts did, indeed, in a special poor law, passed in 1735 for the city of Boston, because that town had "grown considerably populous and the idle and poor much increased among them," provide that when persons "were unable, or neglected to provide necessities for the sustenance and support of their children," such children might be bound out by the overseers, and that "where persons bring up their children in such gross ignorance that they do not know, or are not able to distinguish, the alphabet, or twenty-four letters, at the age of six years," the overseers might bind out such children to good families "for a

decent and christian education." We have no knowledge as to how many children were actually bound out under this remarkable statute. Numerous instances are found in the statutes of various states from 1790 to 1825, authorizing the binding out, or commitment to almshouses, of children found begging on the streets, or whose parents were beggars. A general statute to this effect was passed in New York in 1824. From about 1825 there came a more and more general recognition and practical application of the principle that it is the right and duty of the public authorities to intervene in cases of parental cruelty, or gross neglect seriously endangering the health, morals, or elementary education of children, and to remove the children by force if necessary, and place them under surroundings more favorable for their development. Such action, prompted by philanthropic instincts, finds justification in the fact that neglected childhood is a danger to the state. Step by step statutory authority has been gained for the rescue of neglected children; the definition of the term has been made more and more precise, and at the same time inclusive; agencies have been created for the enforcement of these laws; and institutions established for the care of the children. The law amending the charter of New York city, passed in 1833, provided that the mayor, recorder, or any two aldermen, or two special justices, might commit to the almshouse, or other suitable

place, for labor and instruction, any child found in a state of want or suffering, or abandoned, or improperly exposed or neglected by its parents or other person having the same in charge, or soliciting charity from door to door, or whose mother was a notoriously immoral woman. It is commonly supposed that these statutes were of much later origin.

The Massachusetts law of 1866 provided that children under sixteen years of age who, by reason of the neglect, crime, drunkenness, or other vices of parents, were suffered to be growing up without salutary parental control and education, or in circumstances exposing them to lead idle and dissolute lives, might be committed by the proper court to the place designated for such purpose by the city. In 1882 a law was passed providing for the commitment of neglected children, between three and sixteen years of age, directly to the custody of the state board of charities.

In 1877 New York passed a law, at the suggestion of the society for the prevention of cruelty to children, entitled an act for the protection of children and to prevent and punish certain wrongs of children, which was in part adapted from the industrial school act of England. Subsequently, these provisions were embodied in the penal code, and have from time to time been extended.

Statutes of somewhat similar character have been enacted in nearly all the states of the union. One of the best is that of Michi-

gan, passed in 1889. The sections describing the classes of children who may be committed, because of ill-treatment, to the state public school are drawn with great detail, and are among the most comprehensive that have found place in the statute books. In Michigan such cases are tried before the judges of probate.

The care of neglected, as well as destitute children has been a motive in the founding of many of the private and public child-saving agencies from the early part of the century. The juvenile reformatories, though established primarily for actual offenders and to prevent the commitment of such to prisons with adults, received also neglected and destitute children, and their charters in many cases authorized the commitment of such children to them. The fifth annual report of the New York house of refuge, 1830, says: "The legislature has very much enlarged the objects of our institution, . . . If a child be found destitute; if abandoned by its parents, or suffered to lead a vicious or vagrant life; or if convicted of any crime, it may be sent to the house of refuge." We have already noted that early in the seventies neglected children were being committed to the pauper institutions of Boston. Separate statistics of the pauper and neglected children have been kept by Boston from that time to the present. The state schools for dependent children, though originally established for destitute children, have at later dates

been au-
children
code, en-
commit-
neglecte-
porated
instituti-

Societies for
the Preventi-
of Cruelty
to Childre-

lation, re-
the organ-
preventi-
the first
New York
enough,
of cruel-
istence f-
societies
dren we-
can soc-
cruelty t-
New York
societies
and Penn-
land an-
many ot-
York so-
cruelty t-
January,
April, 1-
passed t-
tion of
cieties f-

1875, Ro-
1876, Po-
1876, Sa-
1877, Ph-
1878, Bo-
1878, Ba-
1879, Bu-
1879, Wi-

¹ See lis-

been authorized to receive neglected children. In New York the penal code, enacted in 1880, authorized the commitment of various classes of neglected children to "any incorporated charitable or reformatory institution."

**Societies for
the Prevention
of Cruelty
to Children.**

The enforcement of laws for the rescue of neglected children, as well as the enactment of further legislation, received a great impetus from the organization of societies for the prevention of cruelty to children, the first of which was established in New York city in 1875. Curiously enough, societies for the prevention of cruelty to animals were in existence for eight years before similar societies for the protection of children were organized. The American society for the prevention of cruelty to animals was organized in New York city in 1866, similar societies followed in Massachusetts and Pennsylvania in 1868, in Maryland and Illinois in 1869, and in many other cities in 1871. The New York society for the prevention of cruelty to children was organized in January, 1875, and incorporated in April, 1875, under a general law passed that year for the incorporation of such societies. Other societies followed in the order named :

- 1875, Rochester.
- 1876, Portsmouth.
- 1876, San Francisco.
- 1877, Philadelphia.
- 1878, Boston.
- 1878, Baltimore.
- 1879, Buffalo.
- 1879, Wilmington, Del.

1880, Brooklyn.

1880, Richmond County, N. Y.

In some cities, societies originally incorporated for the protection of animals added to their objects the protection of children. In others, new societies, often called humane societies, were organized for both purposes. The total number of societies in the United States in 1900, devoted exclusively to the protection of children, or to the protection of both children and animals, is 157.¹ In 1877 the societies for the protection of animals organized the American humane association, which holds an annual convention for the discussion of topics relating to the prevention of cruelty. Societies for the protection of children were admitted to this association in 1887.

The primary work of these societies has been that of investigating cases of alleged cruelty or neglect, and the presentation of the facts to the courts, authorized to consider such cases. In New York, but not elsewhere, so far as known, unless in exceptional cases, the society for the prevention of cruelty to children has, in its co-operation with the courts, included also the investigation of cases of destitution.

The New York society has had an exceptional history. Its first annual report stated that there were already in existence many institutions and societies for the care of children, but that it was not their business to seek out and to rescue children whose lives were rendered

¹ See list in report of New York society for the prevention of cruelty to children, 1899.

miserable by constant abuse and cruelty. The laws for the prevention of cruelty to children were considered ample, but it was nobody's business to enforce the laws. To this task the new society addressed itself. In addition to seeking to discover cases of cruelty and neglect, it stationed agents in all the magistrates' courts, to investigate all cases involving children, whether for destitution, neglect, cruelty, or waywardness. Through these agents it has advised the magistrates, not only as to whether commitment should be made, but as to what institutions the children should be committed to. Subsequently, the children were placed under the care of the society pending investigation, and the agents of the society were given the powers of police officers. Though the power to discharge the children was vested in the managers of the institutions, they, often regarding the society for the prevention of cruelty to children as the real authority through which the children had been sent to them, usually did not discharge the children either to their parents or by adoption, or indenture, without consulting the society, and in some cases took no action in reference to discharge, until so requested by the society. This society thus became, by 1890, the factor which actually controlled the reception, care, and disposition of destitute, neglected, and wayward children in New York city, thus practically controlling the lives of an average number of about fifteen thousand children, and an

average annual expenditure for their support of more than one and one-half million dollars. Its influence has done more to strengthen and perpetuate the subsidy system, as it existed prior to 1894, than any other one factor. Since additional powers have been conferred upon the charities commissioners by the state board of charities, acting under the revised constitution, the activities of the society, so far as destitute children are concerned, have been somewhat restricted.

These societies have, in a number of large cities, provided temporary shelters for children coming under their care. As a rule the societies have been at first supported wholly by private funds, but latterly the societies in New York, Philadelphia, Wilmington, Brooklyn, and probably other cities, have received some aid from public sources.

The influence of the "cruelty" societies as a whole has been in favor of the care of children in institutions, rather than by placing them in families. So far as known, none of the societies have undertaken the continued care of the children rescued by them, but all have turned them over to the care of institutions or societies incorporated for the care of children. By a vigorous enforcement of the laws authorizing the commitment of vagrant, begging, and various other classes of exposed children, they have very largely increased the numbers of children becoming wards of public or private charity. Usually they have not co-operated to any extent with placing-

out soci
ing cont
up fami
have rat
instituti
charitab
during
in home
same p
upon its
to instit
with que
of childr
preferred
cued by
stitution
least nin
than tru
tainty n
placing-c
tracting
such soc
dren fro
surround
their inf
very larg
general
of adopt
been un
greatest
the child
their car
number
strained
impulses
"cruelty

out societies, perhaps because of being continually engaged in breaking up families of bad character, but have rather become the feeders of institutions, both reformatory and charitable. The New York society during 1899 placed fifteen children in homes or situations; during the same period 2,113 children were, upon its recommendation, committed to institutions. Constantly occupied with questions involving the custody of children, they have not unnaturally preferred to place the children rescued by them within the walls of institutions, where possession is at least nine points of the law, rather than trust to a measure of uncertainty necessarily involved in the placing-out system. Without detracting from the great credit due to such societies for the rescue of children from cruel parents or immoral surroundings, it must be said that their influence in the upbuilding of very large institutions, and their very general failure to urge the benefits of adoption for young children, have been unfortunate. Probably their greatest beneficence has been, not to the children who have come under their care, but to the vastly larger number whose parents have restrained angry tempers and vicious impulses through fear of the "cruelty."

Boards of Children's Guardians

As indicated by their name, the societies for the prevention of cruelty to children are private corporations; their boards of managers are independent of official appointment. In only one state have governmental bodies been created to perform the duties elsewhere assumed by these societies. In the state of Indiana, a law of 1889 authorized the appointment of boards of children's guardians in townships (changed in 1891 to counties) having a population more than seventy-five thousand. In 1893 the law was made applicable to counties having more than fifty thousand population, of which there are four in the state, in all of which such boards have been organized. Each board is composed of six persons, three of whom must be women; the members are appointed by the circuit court. The boards not only investigate cases of alleged cruelty and neglect, and bring such to trial, but also undertake the subsequent oversight of the children, placing them in temporary homes, managed directly by the boards, or in institutions managed by others, or in families. A bill introduced in 1899 to make possible the appointment of such boards in counties having less than fifty thousand population failed of passage.

BIBLIOGRAPHY

OF CURRENT SOCIAL THOUGHT AND EFFORT

I—RECENT AMERICAN AND ENGLISH BOOKS

- CANDEE, HELEN C. *How Women May Earn a Living*. New York: Macmillan, 1900. Pp. 9+342, 12mo, \$1.
Practical advice regarding choice of occupation for women. Domestic service; type-writing and stenography; teaching; nursing; designing; business and professional life.
- CHALMERS, T. *Christian and Civic Economy of Large Towns*. New York: Scribner's, 1900. Pp. 6+350, 12mo, \$1.25.
Abridged. Introduction by C. R. Henderson.
- CHAMBERLAIN, WILLIAM I. *Education in India*. New York: Macmillan, 1900. Pp. 107, 8vo, 75c.
- Co-operative Wholesale Societies' Annual for 1900*. London: P. S. King & Son, 1900. 4/6.
- Needs of secondary education. Association versus competition. Direct legislation. The case against the referendum.
- DENSMORE, EMMET, M. D. *Consumption and Chronic Diseases*. New York: Stillman Publishing Co., 1900. Pp. 5+198, 16mo, \$1.25.
Hygienic cure, at patient's home, of incipient and advanced cases. A popular exposition of the "open air treatment," with latest developments and improvements.
- GRINNELL, W. M. *Regeneration of the United States*. New York: Putnam's, 1900. Pp. 4+146, 8vo, \$1.
A forecast of its industrial evolution.
- HALL, T. C. *Social Meaning of Modern Religious Movements in England*. New York: Scribner's, 1900. Pp. 15+283, 12mo, \$1.50.
- LILLY, WM. S. *First Principles in Politics*. New York: Putnam's, 1900. Pp. 322, 8vo, \$2.50.
- London County Council Papers*. London: through P. S. King & Son.
Baths, etc. Public baths and washhouses and public libraries. 2/
Public Health. Annual report of the medical officer on the health of London, 1898. Appendices and diagrams. 3/10.
Statistics. London, 1897-8. Vol. viii. Water companies—fire insurance—education—public health—land and property—lunacy—shop hours—municipal undertakings. Maps and diagrams. 5/9.
- MCKIM, W. D., M. D. *Heredity and Progress*. New York: Putnam, 1900. Pp. 8+283, 8vo, \$1.50.
Proposes a remedy for the present evil of permitting hopelessly degenerate classes to become burdens on the state and to perpetuate their degeneracy.
- Parliamentary Papers*. London: through P. S. King & Son.
Germany. Memorandum and translation of the new law of 1900 on sickness and old-age insurance. 5d.
Labour. Strikes and lock-outs of 1898. Eleventh annual report with statistical tables. 1/5½. Trades Unions. Eleventh annual report of the labour department for 1898, with comparative statistics for 1892-97. 1/10½.
Pauperism. England and Wales. Comparative statement for the month of October in each year, 1857 to 1889. 2½d. Paupers relieved on July 1, 1899. 7½d.
Metropolis Police. Report of commissioner for 1898.
- PROUTY, C. A. *Railway Discriminations and Industrial Combinations*. Philadelphia: American Academy of Political and Social Science, 1900. Pp. 9, 15c.
- RAE, R. *National Temperance League's Annual*. London: Ideal Publisher's Union, 1900. Cr. 8vo, 1/6.
- RIIS, JACOB A. *A Ten Years' War*. Boston: Houghton, Mifflin & Co., 1900. Pp. 5+267, 12mo, \$1.50.
An account of the battle with the slum in New York. Contents: The battle with the slum; The tenement-house blight; The tenement—curing its blight; The tenant; The genesis of the gang; Letting in the light; Justice for the boy; Reform by humane touch.
- SWIFT, LINDSAY. *Brook-Farm: Its Members, Scholars, and Visitors*. New York: Macmillan, 1900. Pp. 10+303, 12mo, \$1.25.
- Trades Union Congress*. London: P. S. King & Son, 1900. 6d.
Report of the thirty-second annual trades union congress held at Plymouth, September, 1899.

II—MAGAZINE ARTICLES

Unless otherwise specified, references are to the March numbers of periodicals

AMERICAN JOURNAL OF INSANITY. Baltimore. (January.)

What the Chronic Insane Can Accomplish Under Proper Direction. (J. T. W. Rowe, M. D.)

Account of the establishment of a farm colony for the insane in 1889 on Long Island by the department of charities and correction of New York city.

The New Commitment Law of Wisconsin and its Operation. (W. F. Becker, M. D.)

Qualifications of examining physicians have been extended. Serving notice upon the alleged insane person for examination and a hearing, and right to trial by jury, are left to discretion of the judge. Temporary detention may be granted in any case. Permits parole of patient by superintendent. Voluntary commitment with no judicial process is made possible.

AMERICAN JOURNAL OF SOCIOLOGY. Chicago. (January.)

The Recent Campaign Against Labor Organizations in Germany. (Max Maurerbrecher.)

Attacks a bill which has the support of the emperor providing for greater protection of unorganized labor.

The Model Public Bath at Brookline. (J. A. Stewart.)

A municipal bathing establishment, open throughout the year, having swimming facilities as well as cleanliness baths. Almost self-supporting.

Psychological and Environment Study of Women Criminals. (Frances A. Kellor.)

ARENA. New York. (February.)

Social Experiments in Australia. (H. T. Burgess.)

A system of state socialism prevails in all the colonies. Railroads, telegraphs, and telephones are under state control. Communistic settlements established by the government have failed.

ATLANTIC MONTHLY. Boston.

The Unofficial Government of Cities. (E. P. Wheeler.)

CATHOLIC QUARTERLY REVIEW. Philadelphia. (January.)

Race War and Negro Demoralization. (Thomas F. Price.)

The negro's present condition as shown by statistics of criminality and disease. Protestantism has failed to regenerate.

Industrial Arbitration. (René Holaind.)

French and English methods of arbitration. CHARITY ORGANISATION REVIEW. London. (January.)

What is Pauperisation?

Forms of public assistance, as education given in elementary schools, tend to pauper-

ise the recipient even though accepted as a right.

A Recurrent Error. (T. Mackay.)

Account of a remonstrance against a scheme presented in Parliament in 1840 similar to the present old-age pension proposal.

A Study in Opinions.

Review of the evidence and statistics collected by the London School Board relating to the question of underfed children.

CONTEMPORARY REVIEW. London. (February.)

French Women in Industry. (ADA CONE.)

Proportion of women workers to men workers in various industries. The wage-earning women turn to industries for a livelihood in greater proportion than the wage-earning men.

The American Negro of To-day. (Philip A. Bruce.)

Defence of the Southern policy of repression.

FORTNIGHTLY REVIEW. London. (February.)

The Ruskin Hall Movement. (L. T. Dodd and J. A. Dale.)

A new educational movement for the benefit of workmen. Its aims and methods. The centre of the movement is at Oxford but entirely separate from the university. A small number of students from the best class of artisans are in attendance. In addition there is a large correspondence department.

HARPER'S MONTHLY MAGAZINE. New York. (February.)

The Railroad and the People. Theodore Dreiser.)

A new educational policy adopted by western railroads for the benefit of farmers and merchants. The farmer is informed concerning the condition of the market and is instructed in the best methods for raising various farm products.

INDEPENDENT. New York.

The Mazet Committee and Its Work. (Chas. H. Parkhurst.) (January 25.)

Attacks partizan nature of the committee's report and Republican bossism which is itself largely responsible for present political corruption in New York.

Municipal Socialism in America. (John C. Chase.) (January 25.)

Progress in municipal ownership of public service corporations in Haverhill, Mass.

The Mazet Investigation. (Frank Moss.) (February 1.)

Necessity for charter revision has been shown which shall insure to New York city a government representative of the people.

The South's Dual System of Education. (N. B. Young.) (February 1.)

Calls for negro supervision of negro public schools.

Municipal Progress in Boston. (Josiah Quincy.) (February 15.)

Successful establishment of a system of free public baths, free gymnasia, and free lectures.

MUNICIPAL AFFAIRS. New York. (December.)

Municipal Art in New York.

Suggestions made at the December meeting of the National Sculpture Society.

NATIONAL REVIEW. London. (February.)

The London Housing Problem. (H. Percy Harris.)

Reorganization of London government by Parliament as a result of the report of the Royal Commission of 1884. Further legislation by Parliament relating to the housing of the working classes. Subsequent action by the London County Council.

NINETEENTH CENTURY. London. (February.)

The Two Reports of the Licensing Commission. (Algernon West.)

Defence of the majority report of the royal commission on liquor licensing laws by the vice-chairman of the commission; and an attack upon Lord Peel's report as chairman, especially as regards reduction in the number of licenses and compensation for suppressed licenses.

NORTH AMERICAN REVIEW. New York. (February.)

The Trust in Politics. (W. A. Peffer.)

The national government is itself a monopoly. It should regulate interstate commerce more extensively, and should also regulate prices at which commodities are bought and sold, for the common good.

OUTLOOK. New York.

The Mormons. (Chas. B. Spahr.) (February 3.)

Religion and church government; education; industrial enterprise.

The Chicago Drainage Canal. (M. N. Baker.) (February 10.)

Present and past attempts to dispose of Chicago's sewage.

The Socialist Movement in Massachusetts. (Leonard D. Abbott.) (February 17.)

Success of the movement in Haverhill and Brockton.

POPULAR SCIENCE MONTHLY. New York. (February.)

The Decline of Criminal Jurisprudence in America. (Gino C. Speranza.)

Failure of law schools to give sufficient instruction in criminal jurisprudence. Present penal laws, the basic principle of which is still retribution and punishment, are inappropriate, inelastic, and unscientific. They neither prevent nor reform.

Volum

Econom
Wise an
Foolish

small e
wise ec
of an c
not lon
\$50,000
tenance
large ex
He wen
percent
hospital
sympto
turned
and mo
the fact
confine
phere f
sult wa
back to
curative
lessly ca
sanitary
to conv
ever gai
while at
expendi
year for
lescent
these cl
watchfu
and wh
time be